

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 346 547

EA 023 868

AUTHOR King, Kenneth; Singh, Jasbir Sarjit
TITLE Improving the Quality of Basic Education. Volume 3: Quality and Aid. Papers Commissioned for the Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers (11th, Barbados, October 29-November 2, 1990).
INSTITUTION Commonwealth Secretariat, London (England).
PUB DATE Sep 91
NOTE 88p.; For other Ministers of Education of the Commonwealth 1990 Conference papers, see ED 339 517.
AVAILABLE FROM Commonwealth Secretariat, Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London SW1Y 5HY, England, United Kingdom.
PUB TYPE Viewpoints (Opinion/Position Papers, Essays, etc.) (120) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Donors; *Educational Change; *Educational Finance; *Educational Quality; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Human Capital
IDENTIFIERS *Commonwealth of Nations

ABSTRACT

Quality of Education was the theme for the 1990 conference of Ministers of Education of the Commonwealth. To provide briefings, the Commonwealth Secretariat commissioned a series of papers on this theme, and a selection of these papers were published as a series of three volumes. This third volume consists of two papers by Kenneth King and Jasbir Sarjit Singh that review how the degree and nature of the involvement of international donor agencies has changed over recent years, in particular with regard to basic education. King provides a review of ways in which donor agencies are responding to calls for renewed support for education for all. He suggests that what is new on the agenda is that more quantity and better quality have now been recognized as inseparable issues. However, financial austerity as well as structural adjustment programs are endangering the maintenance and development of programs, especially if basic education is regarded as an entitlement. Singh illustrates the general review by King with specific examples and case studies of a number of programs and projects, supported by a wide variety of agencies, in a range of countries. Singh identifies some of the elements which field evidence suggests contribute to improved quality in primary education. (RR)

* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *

ED346547

EA 023 868

Quality in
Basic Education
Background/Policy Paper

SCOPE OF INTEREST NOTICE

The ERIC Facility has assigned
this document for processing
to:

EA

In our judgment, this document
is also of interest to the Clear-
inghouse noted to the right.
Indexing should reflect their
special points of view.

SO

Quality and Aid

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

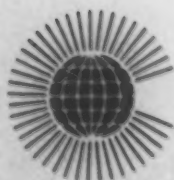
☒ This document has been reproduced as
received from the person or organization
originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve
reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this docu-
ment do not necessarily represent official
OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

C. Coombe

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."



Commonwealth Secretariat

IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF BASIC EDUCATION

**Papers commissioned for the Eleventh Conference of
Commonwealth Education Ministers**

Barbados, 29 October - 2 November 1990

Series Editors: Susie Rodwell and Richard White

Volume 3: QUALITY AND AID

Kenneth King

Jasbir Sarjit Singh

September 1991

**Commonwealth Secretariat
Marlborough House, Pall Mall
LONDON SW1Y 5HY**

COMMONWEALTH SECRETARIAT

Education Programme
Human Resource Development Group
Marlborough House
Pall Mall
London SW1Y 5HX

First published 1991
Copyright Commonwealth Secretariat 1991

Any expressions of opinion in this publication are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the Commonwealth Secretariat.

Copies may be obtained from the Education Programme, Human Resource Development Group, Commonwealth Secretariat.

CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION	
Susie Rodwell and Richard White	v
GLOSSARY	viii
AID AND EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA)	
Kenneth King	1
A REVIEW OF SELECTED INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN BASIC EDUCATION	
Jasbir Sarjit Singh	31

INTRODUCTION

Every three years the Ministers of Education of the Commonwealth meet to exchange views on matters of common concern and to devise practical programmes of cooperation.

The theme chosen for the 1990 meeting, held in Barbados, was **Improving the Quality of Basic Education**. This topic is now at the forefront of the current international education agenda, and was taken up at other conferences during 1990, particularly the **World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA)** held in Jomtien, Thailand, and the **World Summit on Children** held in New York.

To provide briefings for the conference, the Commonwealth Secretariat commissioned a series of papers on this theme from a number of leading international educationists. The purpose of the papers was to inform the Ministers of Education of how current evidence is challenging as well as confirming accepted beliefs and, through case studies, tell them what is happening in a range of countries and programmes. It was decided that a selection of these papers should be published as a series of three volumes. The series consists of:

Improving the Quality of Basic Education

- Volume 1: **Curriculum Reform**
Contributors: M K Bacchus and A A Aziz et al
- Volume 2: **Initial Teacher Training**
Contributor: B Avalos
- Volume 3: **Quality and Aid**
Contributors: K King and J S Singh

The term basic education is taken to mean the activities of primary and junior secondary schools, and of programmes of out-of-school education at an equivalent level, both for children and for adults. Whilst concern with the quality of basic education is nothing new, what these papers show is that our strategies for maintaining and improving quality at this level must be continually re-assessed with policy-makers, planners and practitioners taking account of the lessons learned. This will mean adapting, or even discarding practices which educationists have for long taken as central to accepted theory and good practice. It also means learning more about how schools work and the extent to which, and how, external factors influence performance.

At the Barbados Conference the Ministers identified a number of areas which could be taken up at both national and international levels to improve quality. In particular they identified the centrality of teachers and agreed that the work of the Commonwealth Secretariat should focus on finding better ways of providing more effective teacher training, management and support. The need to find ways of limiting the effects of economic structural adjustment programmes on basic education was also seen as an important area for dialogue.

The two papers, in this the third volume of the series, review how the degree and nature of the involvement of international donor agencies has changed over recent years, in particular with regard to basic education. The task of learning what works better, and what doesn't, in improving quality in basic education, continues to be a rather slow and uncertain one. The World Bank has been the lead agency over recent years in analysing experiences from around the world as to where it appears scarce resources may best be applied. Which of the inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes which make up education cycles should be preferred, and what proportion should go towards raising basic levels of health and nutrition? The range of possibilities makes the choice complex.

King provides us with a review of ways in which donor agencies are responding to the calls made in 1991 for renewed support for Education for All (EFA). He suggests that what is new on the agenda is that more quantity and better quality have now been recognised as inseparable issues. However, financial austerity as well as structural adjustment programmes are endangering the maintenance and development of programmes, especially if we regard basic education, in whatever form, as an entitlement. As a result governments, non-government agencies and donors need to re-examine policies as to how funds may be obtained and where they may be most effectively applied.

Until recently donor-aided projects targeted specialised areas. But increasingly donors have had to widen the scope of their involvement in education as assumptions that systems as a whole were functioning well are now seen as often not true. Thus involvement in aiding recurrent costs such as teachers' pay and in reviewing basic policy issues such as conditions of service, are regarded as legitimate areas of donor concern. To be more sure of sustaining improvements in basic education, donor agencies are now raising questions about domestic policies and political matters, which, in turn, must require much greater degrees of collaboration and participation between all concerned.

Singh illustrates the general review by King with specific examples and case studies. She identifies some of the elements which field evidence suggests contribute to improved quality in primary education. These include, for example, improving the provision of textbooks (written and produced locally) and writing materials, increasing the extent to which students are involved in active-learning, and finding ways to make managers and other external agents, such as supervisors, become committed facilitators and supporters of change in schools and classrooms. Again a lot of emphasis is placed on the conditions of teachers, from increasing training on-the-job, to finding ways in which they may be better motivated.

She provides case studies of a number of programmes and projects, supported by a wide variety of agencies, in a range of countries. She demonstrates what King has earlier suggested that programmes shown as exemplars of success are often multi-faceted, involving not just the provision of

materials but quite radical changes in classroom organisation and in the patterns of behaviour by supervisors and managers.

Both writers call for more information, whether originating from specific evaluative studies written in-country or meta-evaluations by international agencies, and for that information to be shared amongst those concerned with bringing improvements in the quality of basic education.

Thanks are due to the staff of the Commonwealth Secretariat Education Programme for coordinating the production of these papers, and to Christine Walker for the quality of her typing.

Susie Rodwell

Richard White

GLOSSARY

ABEL	Awakening Basic Education and Literacy
AIDAB	Australian International Development Association Bureau
BRIDGES	Basic Research Implementation in Developing Education Systems
CBSA	Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif (Student Active Learning) also: ALPS Active Learning through Professional Support (Indonesia)
CESO	Centre for the Study of Education in Developing Countries (Netherlands)
CFTC	Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service
DSE	German Foundation for International Development
FBTD	Field-based Teacher Development (Pakistan)
FINNIDA	Finnish International Development Agency
GTZ	German Agency for Technical Cooperation
HEDCO	Higher Education for Development Cooperation (Ireland)
IDRC	International Development Research Centre (Canada)
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
INSET	In-Service Education and Training
IRI	Interactive Radio Instruction
IGWE	International Working Group on Education
IYL	International Year of Literacy
KfW	Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau
NNTEP	Northern Nigeria Teacher Education Project
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development
NUFFIC	Netherlands University Foundation for International Cooperation
ODA	Overseas Development Administration (UK)
OECD	Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development
SAREC	Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation with Developing Countries
SHAPE	Self-Help Action Plan for Education (Zambia)
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SIP	School Improvement Project (Sind, Pakistan)
UCI	Universal Child Immunisation
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WCEFA	World Conference of Education for All
ZED	Education, Science and Documentation Centre (Germany)
ZINTEC	Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course

AID AND EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA)

Kenneth King

CONTENTS

	Page
1.0 INTRODUCTION	5
2.0 THE CHALLENGE OF THE TRADITIONS OF AID	6
3.0 NEW AND UNCONVENTIONAL SOURCES OF EDUCATIONAL FINANCING	8
4.0 NEW ATTITUDES AND APPROACHES BY DONORS TO THE CHALLENGE OF EDUCATION FOR ALL	9
4.1 Overview	9
4.2 Approaches	11
4.2.1 Mobilisation: a political movement towards Education for All	11
4.2.2 From donor projects to sectoral policy reforms	14
4.2.3 The interest in policy analysis, programme and sector support	17
4.2.3.1 Policy analysis in the Bank's proposals for aid to primary education	19
4.2.3.2 Policy analysis: Who does it?	21
4.2.4 Facing up to the issue of recurrent costs	22
4.2.5 Foreign currency requirements of basic education	24
5.0 SUMMARY NOTE	25
REFERENCES	28

AID AND EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA)

1.0 INTRODUCTION

'International funding agencies should consider negotiating arrangements to provide long-term support, on a case-by-case basis, to help countries move towards universal primary education according to their timetable. The external agencies should examine current assistance practices in order to find ways of effectively assisting basic education programmes which do not require capital-and-technology-intensive assistance, but often need longer-term budgetary support.' (Framework for action to meet basic learning needs, WCEFA, 1990b:45)

From the perspective of the donor community one of the most important contributions of the March 1990 World Conference on Education for All may turn out to be some rethinking of the aid relationship. If education really is going to be for all, in all countries, and if there is a serious target of the year 2000, then it is doubtful if a business-as-usual approach to foreign aid will be sufficient. But this new politics of universal access to primary, adequate achievement levels, and affordability has been launched at a time of unprecedented concern about the quality of schooling in many low and lower middle income countries. In other words, the challenge of the World Conference is being broadcast at a moment of unusual pessimism about mainstream schools. It is assuredly not just a question of one more big push and universal primary education will have arrived.

At the beginning of the 1990s, there is an anxiety about the holding capacity of schools in an educational environment where there are insufficient textbooks, questions about the commitment of teachers, and increasing demands for parental contributions. In fact the data on declining enrolments are not robust, but there are enough indications of declining school access, joined to the continuing problems of drop-out and non-completion, to suggest that this will certainly not be the easiest time to launch campaigns for universal access, completion and satisfactory achievement.

Some situations are much more critical than others, where, for instance, there has been long term military conflict. But even in the many countries which have had no significant internal strife, there are still severe problems to contend with. The emergent systems for the professional support and inservicing of teachers have become grounded, without the finance for transport, seminars and materials. The arrangements for commissioning, printing, and distributing school texts and teacher guides are said to be becalmed for lack of foreign exchange for certain crucial components - whether paper, printing machinery spares, storage and transport facilities. But the most pervasive problem of all would seem to be the status, remuneration and responsibility of the teaching force. Allegedly full-time teachers are

effectively part-time in some countries since their pay is inadequate to retain them in class.

None of this has happened suddenly, but has been growing in seriousness over the 1980s. The structural adjustment measures of the past decade may have sharpened the focus on the problem. But it was already becoming obvious that the public sector was overextended, and that its central management of the social services - especially education and health - did not relate well to local responsibilities. The general shape of the crisis was evident in the conference in late 1984, on **Educational priorities and aid responses in Sub-Saharan Africa** (HMSO 1986), and was confirmed in much greater detail by the World Bank's **Education in Sub-Saharan Africa** (World Bank, 1988). But it has been the World Conference of 1990 that has quite explicitly pointed to the gap between present and universal provision, and has suggested that there may need to be a new and more flexible response from the development assistance community if this gap is to be made narrower.

In this short paper we look accordingly at the challenge to older styles of aid that are presented by this new politics of universal education. In the process we examine the issue of the comparative advantage of aid, and in particular whether the definitions of what is aidworthy are changing. The whole question is looked at of how aid can play a part in a country reaching a set of educational arrangements that are sustainable. In some ways the assessment of how aid can help in the achievement of universal basic education is very relevant to the Commonwealth family of nations. Some of these have got a long way to go in achieving the targets of the World Conference in Jomtien; others have long since reached the quantitative goals of the Conference. But all have some distance to go in the qualitative dimensions of education for all.

2.0 THE CHALLENGE TO THE TRADITIONS OF AID

Over the past decade the economic crisis in many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa as in other regions has led to a whole series of structural adjustment agreements, in which financing has been agreed with the World Bank family in exchange for a package of macro-economic reforms. The particular conditions laid down in such agreements are, for our purposes, of less importance than the fact that these loans target the very heartland of the states' economic arrangements. The conditionality is intended directly to affect the management of the economy, including many of the critical levers of policy, such as exchange rates, protection of industry, and pricing of agricultural products.

An early reaction to these structural adjustment measures was the UNICEF-led demand that adjustment should not imperil the poorest sections of society - that it should have a 'human face'. Since that point in the mid-1980s, there has been some attention given by a number of donors to the social implications of adjustment. On the other hand the model of the structural adjustment loan has been seen to have some

relevance for specific sectors, such as health, education, etc. The essence of the structural adjustment loan is that it seeks quite directly to influence policies for the economy generally. The same logic has been applied by the World Bank to the education sector. In other words, the Bank's analysis of the education sector in particular regions or countries has suggested that there, too, adjustment of key policies is necessary as a first step. The reform and restructuring of the policy environment thus become the conditions for proceeding with measures that may again encourage quantitative growth. This essential logic of conditionality is neatly captured in the subtitle of the Bank's policy study on Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: **policies for adjustment, revitalisation and expansion.** The relationships amongst these three elements, adjustment of policy, revitalisation, and expansion, are spelled out more exactly in the text:

'Although undoubtedly painful and politically difficult, adjustment policies will alleviate the burden of education and training on public budgets. Measures for revitalisation and expansion, however, will certainly require additional resources. Thus, in the context of ongoing austerity in Africa, resolute movement toward adjustment is a necessary condition for implementing forward-looking policies on the other two dimensions.' [emphasis added]
(World Bank, 1988)

Of course, the particular adjustment measures in the education sub-sector are a long way from the macro-economic package associated with structural adjustment agreements. But they parallel the spirit of those larger mechanisms by emphasising the need to reduce the burden on the public sector of education expenditures. Also there has been an emphasis on diversifying sources of support and finance to schooling, so as to take advantage of private, community and other non-governmental initiatives. Finally there has been a concern with reducing what are seen as unnecessary subsidies, eg to students at tertiary level, and also with containing unit costs, eg of teachers, classrooms, etc.

We shall return to examine more closely some of the kinds of procedures that are involved in these 'educational adjustments', but for the moment it may be worth looking briefly at how the agenda of the World Conference on Education for All fits into this educational adjustment framework. At first sight the World Conference seems to appeal to a very different set of rationales from that associated with adjustment in the education sector. For one thing, the target of universal access to primary and significant reduction in illiteracy imply **increased public-sector support for education.** As far as reduced unit costs are concerned, it should be remembered that the push to gather the remainder of the unschooled into formal education will involve higher unit costs since a significant number of those still outside are likely to be in Peter Williams' words 'pupils more disadvantaged intellectually, physically, geographically, economically and socially' (Williams, 1986:95).

Another element of the Conference agenda which leads directly to higher unit costs is the very strong emphasis upon satisfactory standards of educational achievement in every sector of basic education. Ultimately, improved academic achievement, with less dropping out and non-completion, will lead to a surer 'return' on basic education than a system where standards are very low. But there is no doubt that securing the commitment of the teaching force and providing schools with the basic necessities for better performance will all cost more. Substantially more.

In earlier decades it was common to contrast the priorities for quantitative expansion with those related to qualitative improvement. What is new in the 'expanded vision' of the World Conference is that these two thrusts are being combined: more education and better quality. And all this is being required at a time of unprecedented austerity for many developing countries.

3.0 NEW AND UNCONVENTIONAL SOURCES OF EDUCATIONAL FINANCING

Because of the twin agenda of quantitative expansion and quality improvement, the costs of delivering basic education for all are set to rise. It is no longer just a question of shifting some of the burden from the public education budget to beneficiaries or to the community, but of 'increased absolute and proportional allocations to basic education services' (WCEFA 1990b : article 9). The expanded vision will only be secured by drawing on a much wider basis of government support, from all ministries involved with human resources, as well as from possible reallocations within the education sector, and, for example, from defence spending. Beyond this, the widest range of non-governmental bodies will need to be involved. Even if all these local sources of funding are tapped, it is admitted that for certain countries it will still be essential to rely on substantial external assistance:

'In many cases, no matter how well a country mobilises and allocates its resources, it still will not be able to meet the basic learning needs of the entire population. ... Only external assistance, of a significant amount and sustained over time, can meet the resource needs for basic learning in these countries. The long-term return on this investment, and the goal of external assistance, will be the eventual development of each country's self-sufficiency in providing basic education.' (WCEFA 1990a:40)

This assumption about the need for all parties (governments, non-governmental organisations, and donors) to increase their support to basic education is at the heart of the expanded vision. The very terms, however, in which the scope of the new funding is laid out are such that it would be extremely difficult to assess rapidly whether new resources are really flowing into this subsector. There are, for example, some 20 different local bodies, ministries, and institutions mentioned in the World Conference documentation as possible

sources of support for education. It is clear that if these are really to become in a meaningful way part of the new economic environment for basic education, then there will need to be a mobilisation at the level of the individual country, as well as a new financing order amongst the donor countries. In respect of the chance for new economic relations to emerge both within developing countries and between North and South, it is worth making the point that the build up to the World Conference and the Conference itself took place at a time of unprecedented optimism about the potential of the 'peace dividend', and of the opportunity in both North and South to expect large savings from military budgets. Since that time, the world has witnessed some of the most dramatic military mobilisation to have occurred in peace time in recent years. By the time of the Summit on Children in late September 1990, many nations were actually making new and unconventional commitments to the military budget for their personnel and equipment in the Gulf.

Towards the end of 1990, many of the industrialised countries were in addition considering the new needs of aid to Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, regions that had not been so sharply perceived as contenders for aid at the build-up to World Conference a year earlier.

4.0 NEW ATTITUDES AND APPROACHES BY DONORS TO THE CHALLENGE OF EDUCATION FOR ALL

4.1 Overview

We shall proceed now to list some of the new mechanisms that are being tried out by different donors as they face up to the specific demands of EFA. In several cases, the attitude or the approach has not really established itself. Discussions are continuing. But there is a distinct sense that new approaches will be required. This whole area is properly one that cannot yet be seriously studied, since the challenge of universalising access to better quality basic education is just beginning to be accommodated.

It is already clear, however, that some of the radicalism in the Jomtien discussions and final Declaration (doubtless spurred also by the dramatic changes in Eastern Europe) has encouraged the beginnings of some quite fundamental rethinking about the existing traditions of aid, the conventional categories under which it is delivered, the hitherto accepted package of education and training aid. Much of this reconsideration is still tentative but it may be worth illustrating the spirit of this, before turning to some specific modalities.

What Jomtien achieved, greatly assisted by its location during the year of the most monumental political change since the second world war, was to encourage a rather fundamental discussion about education, especially in the developing world. In what may be termed the spirit of Jomtien, bilateral and multilateral agencies have been reviewing their past practice. In some cases, they have encouraged a rather open debate about the way ahead. And just as the drafts and

ideas of the World Conference were exposed during 1989 to a very wide-ranging critique from many different constituencies, so some agencies have been opening up a policy dialogue with elements in their national or international constituencies. Thus, Britain's ODA convened a meeting in October 1990 which quite explicitly asked experts on international education (including the non-governmental constituency) what were some of the implications of Jomtien for the aid programme, and in particular how the economic challenge of education for all (at the basic level) might be translated into particular actions. This encouraged a very open debate about, for example, the large proportion of Britain's education and training aid that is spent on training (the majority of this in the UK). A useful discussion was then initiated about the extent to which training overseas could really relate to the desperate situation in so many primary schools in the developing world, and to the achievement of education for all.

This kind of questioning of how well the aid programme is geared up to deal with the demands of education for all has not been restricted to the UK. A parallel questioning of accepted modes of support has been carried on in several other bilaterals as well as in some of the multilaterals and the private foundations. In some cases, this has involved some fundamental review of the sectoral priorities in education (eg Holland and Italy). In others the same questions that some agencies have been addressing to primary education are being asked of existing patterns of support to higher education. The question is simple: Are our current projects relevant to the character of the crisis in higher education? One agency representative in late 1990 put very plainly for the arena of higher education what others might well have posed for their agency's support to primary:

'I ask myself whether [our current projects] are adequate means to meet the dramatic situation at those overcrowded, understaffed, desperate institutions of higher learning. (personal communication).'

Other agency concerns, again with higher education, illustrate a relatively recent readiness to ask quite basic questions about patterns of agency support, for example, to Africa's universities. In some countries, the key question is not very different than those being asked of the primary sector: how can good staff be persuaded to stay in these underfunded institutions? It is intriguing to see that a report on African universities done for Rockefeller and Ford Foundations raises questions about whether current patterns of external support to higher education come anywhere near addressing the most crucial issues of staffing (Coombe, 1991).

There are several other examples of agencies wrestling with the implications and consequences of Jomtien for their programmes. Even the World Bank, which had been working on a primary education policy paper for two years prior to Jomtien, has been doing some further thinking about what the very notion of entitlement to basic education may mean for

Bank programming. The idea of entitlement is a direct derivative from Jomtien, and is still only being discussed informally, but it appears to be putting on to the Bank's agenda the need to think through the right to expanded early childhood education, to universal primary, and to something much closer to universal secondary education. There is an acknowledgement that not all of this need happen through formal schools, but will involve non-formal alternatives.

The notion of entitlement is also having the effect in the Bank of emphasising somewhat more the provision of adult education and training, for the achievement of literacy missed when of school age, and for the maintenance and reinforcement of education weakly delivered in schools. In other words, some of the new thinking in the Bank really does appear to be contemplating an expanded vision of basic education for all, and to have moved significantly forward from the initial emphasis on primary education as the method of achieving education for all.

After sketching out the fact that there is certainly a mood of review and revision amongst agencies, it must be acknowledged that it has not yet led to a great deal of identifiable action. The sequence of great conferences held in 1990, related to the Jomtien theme and spirit [March, Thailand; April, Mexico; September, Geneva and New York; and November Barbados] has carried the momentum forward, but to the extent that there are pointers and approaches to action, these will tend to have been in train before Jomtien. They are, however, worth referring to now, since Jomtien has given them a new salience. The first of these is concerned with mobilising public opinion at the international, national and local levels.

4.2 Approaches

4.2.1 Mobilisation: a political movement towards Education for All

At one end of the spectrum of possible modalities associated with agencies concerned with education for all is the one that is the most ambitious. In one way it is such a large mechanism that it scarcely belongs to the education sector at all. It is the notion that the problem of education is so basic it cannot afford to be left to the education divisions of the donors or the ministries of education in developing countries. This approach probably accepts that an assault on illiteracy and an inadequate education is so massive a challenge it needs to be taken up by heads of state, and not just by national ministries of education or their counterpart ministries of overseas development in the industrialised countries.

It is an approach that has been closely identified with a single multilateral assistance agency, UNICEF. And within that agency, the case for treating education as appropriate for a social mobilisation has been based on the history of UNICEF's campaign in favour of Universal Child Immunisation (UCI). When UNICEF was promoting the feasibility of dealing with UCI by means of a 'Grand Alliance', its executive

director argued it was too big an issue to be left to the medical sector:

'If the challenge is to be met on the scale which is now urgently needed and clearly possible, it will be met by a social movement rather than a medical movement alone. Only such grand alliances for children can create the informed public demand for, and practical knowledge of, those methods which could bring about the revolution in child survival and development.

Similarly, a revolution in world-wide education must begin with an 'education grand alliance', a social movement, inspired by strong political will at the highest level and involving not only the government bureaucracy and school structure but also communities, parents and other organisations and individuals in planning, coordinating and running basic education programmes.' (UNICEF 1990).

If UNICEF is now going to apply to the education sector the methods it has successfully pioneered in the health-for-all field, it will presumably draw on the media in a major way. In the health campaigns, it was according to UNICEF, not the provision of health services alone that created success. 'It was only when the public was told through television, radio, newspapers and other media of the need for and the value of immunisation that coverage rose substantially' (UNICEF 1990).

It is still clearly too early to know whether there is a chance that universal access to education can be modelled on the universal access to immunisation and other health campaigns. It is not obvious that there are in the education field such commandingly simple solutions as oral rehydration, breast feeding, growth charts, which, with several others, UNICEF has focused upon in its world-wide campaigns. The nearest that the agencies, including the World Bank, have come to anything like this is the notion of the 5 dollar package of educational materials per child. This has a certain attraction from the viewpoint of presenting the global challenge of providing this measure, but in some schools it is unlikely that there is really the infrastructural floor available to profit from these additional funds. Indeed, it is doubtful if in the area of improved teaching or the measurement of achievement, there are any 'silver bullets' of the simplicity of oral rehydration. At the same time, it must be admitted that several of the other mechanisms and modalities we now turn to could be dramatically strengthened by the successful emergence at the world level of a social and political commitment to universal education.

In one way, it could be said that the strategy of mobilisation has already had some effect. The mobilisation prior to the World Conference was itself a mechanism for encouraging a new kind of openness and was a powerful impetus towards some review of policy making. Jomtien, sandwiched as it was between the UN Conference on the Rights of the Child, and the UN Summit for Children, could be seen as making a

direct appeal to heads of state, heads of agencies, and leaders of educational institutions, formal and nonformal, to take action on education. This mobilisation at the international level, however, then needs to be translated into national actions on a similar scale. This is, again, something that can be encouraged and partly funded from outside. Indeed, UNESCO's 'Action Plan' to follow up on Jomtien envisages a key role for external bodies and particularly UNESCO in national mobilisation. The first two steps in this catalysing process are worth noting:

'The approach will, typically, involve steps as follows:

1. encourage countries to establish a national, inter-sectoral body with advisory or executive competencies (Presidential Commission, EFA task force) bringing together the major actors in basic education;
2. assist the EFA (Education for all) body to organise a 'roundtable meeting' which will mobilise the major domestic actors and partners and build a consensus on needs and priorities in basic education.' (UNESCO : 1990)

It could be argued that the moment is not particularly propitious for mobilisation or for regular education budgets to grow sufficiently to accommodate the new imperatives of education for all. Debt servicing ratios remain at a very high level in many countries. Consequently, social and political mobilisation of the kind UNICEF has been identified with could be critical to putting education on the top of national agendas. Equally, UNICEF's search for macro-economic mechanisms that could facilitate countries dedicating more to basic education might also pay off handsomely. Debt-swaps, in which third world debt is swapped for greater local commitment to basic education, was an example of the kind of mechanism that was being explored.

This sort of search for new economic modalities is not the sort of task that the education divisions of donor agencies can pursue, nor indeed national ministries of education. Necessarily, the identification of these kinds of new funds will derive from political discussions at a very different level from those responsible for education in the agencies. Changes, for instance, in traditional agency policy that required local costs of aid projects to be provided by national governments will tend to be taken at a high level across the entire agency, and not just in the education division.

The task of monitoring this campaigning approach to education for all will not be straightforward either. If political and social mobilisation does become a force to contend with in certain countries, it is unlikely to be the result of the gradual growth in education budgets. Indeed, these are already severely strained. More likely social mobilisation will be the result of the conversion of the head of state to the potential of education for all.

By the time of the Commonwealth Ministers of Education meeting in November 1990, it was almost six months since the Jomtien Conference. It would be interesting to consider whether within the speeches and debates on basic education amongst the Commonwealth family of nations, there was yet any evidence of this social and political commitment to basic education having emerged as a movement at the national level. What was clear from the Ministers' Conference was that there was very definitely a tradeoff identified between quality and quantity improvement in basic education on the one hand and the economic pressures associated with indebtedness and structural adjustment on the other. Rather than countries mobilising directly for education for all, there was a strong interest in a dialogue with the major international financial institutions about ways of minimising the social impact of these adjustment measures.

4.2.2 From Donor Projects to Sectoral Policy Reforms

If encouraging social mobilisation in favour of education for all is at one end of the spectrum of modalities that may be open to certain donor agencies, there are several other mechanisms that, while still relatively political, are more closely connected to the education divisions of the donor agencies. The movement away from a reliance on individual donor projects and towards a concern with the reform of key policies in education is one of the more obvious of the shifts amongst donors in recent years. Like the mobilisation approach, this too has a political aspect, but it is a shift in aid strategy that is much more within the sphere of the education divisions of the donor agencies. What makes this mechanism political is the assessment that isolated, donor-assisted projects are unlikely to be successful in situations where the larger institutional framework for education is weak.

Donor-assisted projects in education have traditionally been based upon the assumption that the larger national infrastructure supporting education is in place, and functioning. Thus many donor projects have ultimately been based upon a particular strategy for the adoption of innovations. The role of the donor was often close to that of the innovator. The donor project sought to break new ground, often in a small number of schools, in one region or district of the country. The unspoken assumption was that if the project was judged successful, it could be replicated or extended country-wide with local funding. There were always some problems with this donor-as-innovator role, and not least with the distinction between the resources the donor might be tempted to apply to the pilot project as compared with what the national government could provide to any national extension.

But once the institutional capacity of so many ministries of education had been eroded, and the basic infrastructure of inspection, inservicing, and supply of materials had been severely weakened, these types of donor projects began to look like pilot projects that could never hope to become part of the regular education system. Progressively as the

surrounding government infrastructure weakened, the donor project began to take over the funding of elements that would once have been thought to be the responsibility of the host government. Where once it would have been assumed that certain recurrent costs of a donor project would have been picked up by the local government, it became commonplace in countries with a weakening institutional base to assume that the donor would need to meet a larger and larger proportion of what had been once considered appropriate local contributions.

In the bleak, new economic circumstances, donors who held out for significant 'host country contribution' would be rewarded only by their project taking a low priority, or by its taking an increasingly long time to get agreed at all. Donors anxious to get projects up and running fast would find themselves contravening all the older ground rules of what donors and national governments should respectively contribute to a project. These earlier understandings had been predicated on the assumption that the donors were transferring a new technology, or temporarily providing expertise not available locally. But since the assumption of the project mode was that the local government had to be sufficiently interested in the project to cover some of its recurrent elements, the expectation had been that certain basics would be provided locally, - such as housing, office space, local counterparts, and even transport.

Although the theory of the project approach had been that it should be easy for the host government to take it over, and hence they should be involved in supporting the activity *ab initio*, the reality of the institutional deterioration in many countries has meant that if the project is to happen at all, the donor would need to cover a good deal more. Projects that were already underway were progressively faced with the problem of some governments being unable to make good their part of the original bargain. Thus it became commonplace for the donors to 'protect their investment' by surrounding their project with its own project transport, project housing, project phones, office space, etc. In fact a whole project enclave within the Ministry of Education was erected (King 1987). Ingemar Gustafsson has described this tendency very recently in similar terms:

'... donors have reacted by trying to 'guard' their own projects through separate structures for project implementation, topping up of salaries of local staff and recruitment of foreign experts.'
(Gustafsson 1990. See also McNab 1990)

And Bengt Troedsson, also of SIDA, has commented similarly on the way the initial support to a single project has spread out across the sub-sector. The illustration is from vocational training, but it is still highly relevant to this process of investment protection:

'Thanks to heavy Swedish involvement, (the Vocational Training Centre [VTC] in Moshi, Tanzania) has become and still remains a model training centre of high standard. Starting from

the Moshi VTC the Swedish support has gradually spread into other parts of the vocational training subsector, such as instructor training, central planning, educational management, stores management, rehabilitation of other VTCs, etc. So far about 200 million SEK (10 million sterling) have been invested. Is this a worthwhile undertaking for Tanzania and for Sweden? What will happen in the future?' (Troedsson 1990: 28)

The outcome of this kind of process has been the emergence of projects which are much more donor creations than they are joint initiatives. Clearly, such projects are easier to start up, but they are more difficult to transfer to the host country, since such a large part of the project is running on external funds. Indeed some donors who had embarked on such demonstration projects before the financial crisis deepened have become involved in a Catch 22 situation in which they have progressively taken on more and more local costs, - on the grounds that the project would otherwise be in peril. But finally they find that what they thought was temporary they may never be able to terminate - so dependent has the project become on external support.

In such a situation it should not be surprising that donors have been rethinking the traditional project approach. Projects had been becoming progressively more foreign as the local infrastructure weakened. Quite logically, therefore, in recent years donors have interested themselves more in activities that directly related to the infrastructure, since it was the weakness within that which had produced these 'enclave' projects.

This does not mean of course that there are no longer many externally funded individual projects. There are, but the tendency is to structure them so they are not seen as isolated, self-standing projects, depending on government takeover and national replication. There is, however, perhaps one situation where a donor may accept that a project has worked but where it is not essential that it be taken up in the particular host country, and that is where the project is principally seeking to test a new technology. With technologies such as USAID's interactive radio, the donor may be pleased to have the opportunity to test it thoroughly without assuming that the test country will necessarily take it up.

Nor should this criticism of enclave projects mean that donors will not continue to look for innovative strategies. Indeed, it is already obvious that the great themes of the Jomtien conference are throwing up a whole set of renewed donor interests in projects, innovations and alternative programmes that embody the Jomtien spirit. Thus the IIEP launched in August 1990 a programme that will identify initiatives where the themes of participation, partnership, community involvement, linkage with NGOs have been central to project success. This IIEP programme ('Collaborating for educational change: the participation of government, NGOs, and the community in the improvement of basic education') nicely illustrates the new wisdom about projects needing not

to be 'one-offs', but to be successfully integrated into the regular system. The programme description underlines the importance of this criterion, by the use of the word 'sustainable', which more than any other term captures this widespread donor concern with the potential for continuation on local funds:

'The innovations should also be assessed as 'sustainable'; ie they have been replicated beyond the original project site, through more routine administrative mechanisms, and currently continue to operate.' (IIEP 1990).

4.2.3 The interest in policy analysis, programme and sector support

If projects were no longer working as intended because of infrastructural weaknesses, or because the isolated 'innovative' project appeared a luxury in a situation of deteriorating schools, it was perhaps natural that donors should begin to pay more attention to the policy environment, and to the education sector at large. After all, if ministries of education were unable to offer basic institutional support to projects, it might be because their education policies were not appropriate, or because they did not have the financial and human resource capacity to provide it. Gradually therefore donor interest shifted over the past several years to a concern with national educational policies themselves, and to a consideration of the potential for their reform. Clearly, this was not an option in countries where donors had very little money available for basic education; leverage on policy could only be expected when donors were discussing major funding, and when they had the capacity themselves to encourage a substantive dialogue about policy reform. The World Bank has led the way in this concern with policy-based approaches. Its ability to do so was obviously strengthened by the economic weakness of many developing countries during the later 1980s, and equally by the much greater certainty within the Bank itself about its own education priorities, and especially in the area of basic primary education. See, for instance, the Bank's **Primary education: a World Bank policy paper**, which appeared in late 1990, and which laid out the particular emphases in primary education support (World Bank 1990a).

The pursuit of policy change has not, however, been restricted to the Bank. USAID has also been centrally involved in several of its projects in seeking to supply techniques that would impact directly on the policy process. But in addition, the identification of policy reform as the centre piece of large scale primary school improvement has led to a degree of donor coordination. To some extent this may mean that the smaller donors are, in a sense, coming in on the coat-tails of the Bank, and can perceive themselves as having considerably more leverage as a result. On the negative side of this multi-donor packaging of policy-based aid, it could be argued that the degrees of freedom for the recipient country are reduced, with much of the available funding being located within a single co-ordinated initiative. At the same time, the smaller donors may need to

consider to what extent they have really been able to contribute to the analysis that underpins the comprehensive project. There is already some indication of bilateral hesitation about simply joining in on a project whose principal methods, assumptions and outcomes have been determined by the Bank. There is some feeling that the comparative advantage of bilateralism is lost if the bilateral agencies are effectively 'multilateralised' through their participation in Bank projects.

Be that as it may, there is no doubt that instead of donors running their own highly 'protected' projects within a generally weak education infrastructure, the emphasis amongst many donors has shifted to the education sector at large, and inevitably has focused on questions of management, governance, efficiency and effectiveness. To an extent, these new interests of donors in management and efficiency have derived from parallel concerns with costs, financing and quality in the West itself. With aid donors, however, these concerns have been accentuated by a feeling that there was little value in pouring new project wine into old, unreformed sectoral bottles.

Some donors, such as Swedish SIDA had been using the sectoral approach for a long time, but in reality these early sector approaches were not concerned with institutional reform and the management of educational costs. In some ways, they were still really a loose collection of old style projects within a particular sector, as Gustafsson has admitted:

'the sector programmes are more of a set of conventional projects grouped under a broad sector agreement. They have so far neither been designed to address the recurrent financing problem nor the question of institutional support.' (Gustafsson 1990:3)

The move from project to programme, and to policy-based loans and grants implied a much more fundamental review of the existing systems of education. The earlier mode had been founded on the notion that the donors would establish an example of 'good practice', such as a model community school, in the hope that it might be taken up more broadly. The new approach led directly to the asking of very direct questions of the education sector as a whole, such as the distribution of funding between higher and primary education, the budget for learning materials, the number of live teachers (as opposed to ghost teachers) on the rolls, and much else.

Some of this policy analysis across the education sector would suggest that there were so many things needing attention in the basic infrastructure of education that there was little need to look for innovative projects that did not touch on these central issues. There was, however, one important difference between the earlier donor interest in innovative projects and the newer interest in policy-based reform. The former (project) approach had usually reflected some of the particular expertise and comparative advantage of individual, bilateral donors, whether in English language teaching, inservice teacher training, or vocational

orientation. The policy-based approach was much more intrusive, since it implied making judgements about how education was organised, funded and administered in an allegedly independent state.

There are not many examples of comprehensive policy analysis outside the Bank and USAID's sector reviews. One of the most useful examples of this style of analysis is the Bank's **Improving primary education in developing countries: a review of policy options** (Lockheed and Verspoor 1990). In its detail and coverage, this is an impressive account of the current literature on primary education viewed from the perspective of the Bank. This is not the place to analyse the work as a whole, but it may be valuable to look briefly at what are seen as the implications for foreign aid to primary education that are contained in it. The strategies generalised in the review of policy options naturally incorporate many insights from individual country reports and sub-sector studies in preceding years.

4.2.3.1 Policy analysis in the Bank's proposals for aid to primary education

The Bank's review of patterns of donor support to primary education suggests just a few very basic things, but does so very firmly. First, the volume of external aid to primary education (at less than 5 per cent of total education aid) is simply too small. Second, external aid to primary does not appear to have been targetted very effectively at those elements which in the Bank's view most directly affect quality. Support to pedagogical inputs, for example, such as teacher improvement and textbooks, was only running at 18.5 per cent of aid to primary. Third, there was insufficient external aid going to broad sub-sectoral programmes that would over the long term impact on quality. As an example of what such programmes might focus upon, the authors of the report urge the following as one of three priorities:

'Seed money to support both local and foreign costs of institutional development and management improvement, focusing specifically on the strengthening of examination and achievement assessment systems, and the training of education administrators.' (Lockheed and Verspoor 1990:148)

The other priorities suggested by these Bank authors for foreign aid to primary are concerned with the exchange of information about good practice in primary school reform initiatives, and, secondly, the formation of a corps of high quality experts to advise on reform and to assist in the transfer of approved technologies.

Supporting 'institutional development and management improvement' sounds straightforward, but in reality these are highly complex goals compared with the relative simplicity of a self-standing project. There are of course a whole series of sub-systems involved in the management of primary education, - the curriculum development process, textbook development, the inspectorate, education administration, teacher inservicing, headteacher development, assessment and

examinations, and lastly but most important the financing of the entire system. Several of these are the elements which have weakened progressively in many countries during the 1980s. But if the new approach of the 1990s is to be successful, it is important that it should not suffer from some of the same problems as the old isolated project approach of earlier years.

An example may make this clearer. Donors are being encouraged to focus upon some of these critical areas mentioned above, as part of institutional capacity development and of management improvement. Indeed, there have been donors, such as ODA, who have focused on the training of educational administrators in Tanzania at the district and regional level over more than a decade. But even though this initiative has been targetted at a particularly important element in the primary sub-system, it might be argued that it could still end up being like other old-style isolated projects. If the support to the sub-system, such as the district administration or the inspectorate, is not integrated into the total primary school management system, it may still be what the great Indian educator, J P Naik, called an encapsulated innovation - quite cut off from influence on the rest of the system.

Here then is the crux of the new concern with policy-based reform: that no agency, not even the World Bank, can in any one country tackle more than a few of the basic sub-systems, and the policies that relate to them. Can there be improvement of one sub-system, eg textbook provision, without the improvement at the same time of the supporting sub-systems, - the inspectorate, assessment, teacher - inservicing, distribution, etc, etc? In the past there were great temptations to think that single items were worth pursuing for their own sake. Now that it is commonplace to think that **systemic change** is necessary, a much greater difficulty has arisen. **System-wide change is not a technical matter.** Improving the quality of the inspectorate, the teachers, headteachers, curriculum developers, etc, is ultimately inseparable from a consideration of their salaries, status, promotion and career tracks - their terms of service. Some of these new policy-based reforms come much closer to the heart of the political process itself, and to that extent involve a higher risk than traditional approaches, as Birger Frederiksen of the World Bank admits:

'Added to uncertainties concerning impact is the fact that any major education reform typically has important short and long term effects on large segments of the population as well as on the nation's social and economic development process. Consequently, such reforms entail Government decisions that are generally politically very sensitive, and their implementation needs to be studied in the context of the political, economic and social interests affected.' (Frederiksen 1990 : 12)

The above discussion would suggest that if other donors do as the Bank advises and concentrate more of their resources in

primary, and, within primary, more on critical areas of management and institutional improvement, there are likely to be more conditions laid down by the donors, and to that extent the support of primary education will become more of a political arena.

Another tendency we have noted in policy-based lending is to regard education as a system, and to that extent there is encouragement to develop approaches that affect many of the key centres of decision-making in the system. This recognition of institutional complexity is likely to be at odds with that other donor trend that has been evident in connection with education for all - the search for the single factor solution - like the 5 US dollar package. The more that is understood about the depth of deprivation in primary schools, the more difficult will it be to fashion a 'quick fix' solution.

Christine McNab of SIDA has underlined the complexity of an external donor seeking to deliver increased aid for the social sectors against a background of the 'eroded capacity and legitimacy of the state' in many recipient countries. She too has emphasised the problem of increasing external aid to one component when other basic elements of the primary school are unresolved:

'It is too early to say how such an increased support to education will look in practice. It is not expected, however, that it will be an easy task to increase it. For example, how can increased support to textbook production make an impact on educational quality when teachers cannot support themselves on their salaries? How will underpaid, understaffed and under-resourced ministries of education handle an increased volume of aid?'
(McNab 1990:48)

4.2.3.2 Policy Analysis: Who does it?

The move from old-style project financing to a concern with policy-based reform comes at a time of considerable interest in the democratisation of educational decision-making. This potentially more intrusive analysis of a country's planning processes could make the recommendations of a donor quite unacceptable, since they would be seen as imposed from outside through the leverage of foreign exchange support. Some thinking in the Bank has therefore embraced the view that the policy reforms must emerge from a locally-owned process of review and analysis. In other words, local analysts and planners must themselves reach conclusions about what needs to be changed:

'We have already stressed the need for a minimum level of consensus among the main stake-holders in the education sector as a condition of being able to implement process-oriented education reforms. Solid information, derived from analytical work that is 'owned' by the country, constitutes a cornerstone in any consensus-building effort.'
(Frederiksen 1990:14)

This has a very welcome ring to it. But it may be worth underlining the perhaps obvious point that if the local analysis is merely a fleshing out of a policy that the Bank (and other donors) have already decided upon in principle, then the ownership may be much harder to achieve. If the local analysts are required to work out, say, how urban double-shift primary education can be introduced, but double-shifting is itself a given, then the local task is more akin to a quantity surveyor than to an architect. The same point has already been made about the incorporation of other donors in large projects where the Bank has had a monopoly of the analysis and design.

That aside, the Bank has correctly identified the absence of local analytical capacity in education as a major obstacle to the twin goals of qualitative and quantitative improvement in education for all. It views the strengthening of research and analysis capacity in assessment, analysis of student achievement, educational statistics, management information, and education research more generally as a critical accompaniment of any national commitment to educational improvement. Hence the strengthening of research and analysis capacity in education can be safely assumed to become an increasingly important mechanism for the Bank (World Bank, 1991). This is happening also with other donors. Christine McNab has mentioned that 'it is no longer a question of just training a few individual educational planners or other categories of technical staff; the whole of public sector administration, with its financial and social sector management, needs strengthening' (McNab 1990).

4.2.4 Facing up to the issue of recurrent costs

Another aspect of donor behaviour in recent years has been an increasing readiness to cover recurrent costs. More and more items that would in earlier years have been regarded as appropriate local contributions are now routinely covered by donors. Much of this can be explained under the 'investment protection' rationale that was discussed above. Within the project mode in certain countries, it had become obvious that the project might not survive unless the donor contributed to items such as transport, housing, supplies, communications, etc. Of course the traditional worry about contributing to recurrent costs was that the eventual takeover of the project by government and its achievement of sustainability would not be possible if the balance between donor and local contribution got out of hand.

With the deepening financial crisis in many countries, the challenge of meeting recurrent costs of the expanded but under-resourced systems is growing. And there is a particular problem with the recurrent costs of primary or indeed adult literacy education, since such a very large proportion of the recurrent cost is teachers' salaries. Traditionally, many donors' involvement in primary has been with the capital costs - with school construction, and more recently with rehabilitation - or with non-salary recurrent expenditure in such areas as textbooks. In addition donors

have been concerned with those systems that impact on primary, such as the inspectorate, primary teacher training, and the training of district administrations. But one result of Jomtien has been to refocus attention on the crisis of primary school quality, and on the inescapable centrality of the ordinary primary school teacher. The paradox of external aid to primary is really whether it can continue to focus on elements other than the primary school teachers themselves who account for over 90 per cent of recurrent costs. (The Bank for instance had been dedicating almost 2/3 of its primary school support to building, construction and civil works.)

It is precisely this area of primary teachers' salaries that donors, at least until very recently, have steered away from. External support to teachers' salaries has for a long time been regarded as a wall that should not be breached. In practice, donors have been supporting teachers' salaries in very small ways for quite some time. In literacy campaigns, for example, certain donors have been prepared to pay the wages or honoraria of the literacy workers. In other situations, 'incremental salaries' have covered employees on projects. And there has been relatively widespread use of 'topping-up' of salaries. Very little of this has related to mainstream primary schooling.

Although the very idea of foreign donors contributing to teachers' salaries still seems to many agencies to be beyond the pale, it is becoming clear in the poorer countries from university down to primary school that institutions are finding it virtually impossible to prevent the haemorrhaging of good staff out of education. For example, any review of higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa in the early 1990s has to face the question of attracting staff back or holding staff in the national university systems. And at primary school level, too, so many of the basic reforms - especially in the area of improved achievement and better quality - are dependent on a renewed commitment of primary school teachers to their classes.

Where primary school teachers' salaries do not begin to constitute a monthly wage, is there really a case for foreign donors 'crossing the Rubicon' and using external funding to raise teachers' pay? This was not even a thinkable proposition several years back, but recently mechanisms are at least being discussed both by bilateral agencies, and by multilaterals. For example, one agency mission to Uganda in 1990 admitted that any successful primary school project that was negotiated would have to address the parlous state of teachers' salaries. (Personal communication, agency representative, August 1990). And in a recent paper by Birger Frederiksen which we have already mentioned, the issue of teachers' salaries emerges as perhaps the single most important area for donors to consider in their new policies towards primary education:

'Finally, recurrent cost financing - especially the ability to pay teachers - is often the most serious constraint on future enrolment expansion in

low-income countries that are still far from having attained universal primary education. To provide such support is difficult for many donors. While especially support for teachers' salaries raises questions as to modalities and long-term sustainability, it is time to face these questions seriously and imaginatively. In order to be able to respond with flexibility to countries' unique conditions, donors should be more willing to provide such support.' [emphasis added] (Frederiksen 1990:21)

Beyond this strong statement, informal discussions with agency staff would indicate that this item is fast reaching the top of the agenda as the crisis in many countries continues to deepen. Just as it was considered in the 1981 World Development Report to be a new departure to suggest that donors consider non-salary recurrent costs (which now appears very normal), so in a further five years it may be possible to look back at a whole series of aid mechanisms that, in effect, are forms of recurrent 'inducements' to teachers. Indeed, it is already reported from the Bank that there is no impediment in principle to lending for teachers' salaries, provided it is done on a large scale and on a declining basis. It would also imply a long term commitment to the country concerned of some six to seven years. Although there is nothing to prevent lending in this sphere, there remain hesitations, not least because support to teachers raises questions about the larger body of civil service pay. And at the country level, there has been some reluctance to accept lending for teachers' pay support.

On the issue of recurrent costs, including of teachers and of instructors, it could well be instructive to look at the existing practice of NGOs. It would appear that aid moneys from bilateral and other agencies can be attached to a very wide range of local costs.

A good deal of work remains to be done on the range of recurrent costs that can now be covered. What is clear is that a great variety of recurrent cost can be picked up; in the words of one senior agency executive discussing what could and could not be covered, 'anything goes'. By which it was implied that a case could in principle be made for most types of recurrent cost financing. Indeed, so routine has the category become that in the very recent Donors to African Education Information System, which is a data base on current aid projects in Africa, there are under the category 'project or programme operation inputs' just seven possible inputs (World Bank 1990b). But it is interesting to note that 'recurrent cost financing' is now institutionalised within this data base as one of the seven regular categories for grants or loans.

4.2.5 Foreign currency requirements of basic education

Unlike several other sub-sectors of education where aid moneys may be directly needed to purchase or support elements that require foreign exchange (eg equipment for universities, consultancies, overseas staff training, etc), basic education

does not really require large injections of foreign exchange. In some countries, the drying up of teaching materials - from chalk, to jotters, to textbooks - may involve imports financed by donors, but for many others, such items are locally available; there is simply the lack of budgetary support in the ministry to allow them to be purchased.

In these situations, the foreign exchange is basically leveraging the government to spend local currency on primary school improvement, while the foreign exchange may itself be used for a quite different sub-sector of education, or outside the education sector entirely. There are many different modalities, but over time it may be worth monitoring the changing conditionality at the heart of these transactions. Unlike a loan (or grant) for higher education, where the funding can exercise direct leverage on rehabilitation of laboratories, purchase of journals, equipment, spare parts, etc, the aid projects for primary or basic education involve trade-offs with other priorities where foreign exchange is desperately needed. It is possible in this situation that what seems like borrowing for basic education is really something else.

This question of new patterns of external aid to recurrent costs, including to teachers' salaries, is one where a great deal more research is needed, but there is obviously no single pattern emerging. For instance, in parts of French West Africa, it is apparently now commonplace for poorer countries to receive a package of 'General Budgetary Support' from France, part of which goes into the support of civil service salaries (including teachers). In a very different kind of country, general budgetary support may, as in the case of USAID and Namibia, be an expression of a desire for the country to determine precisely which sectors and subsectors in education should be strengthened. It can thus be seen as an expression of confidence in the capacity of the regime to determine support needed for different sectors, including basic education. Here therefore is an example of a similar measure - direct budgetary support - operating in two very different economic policy regimes.

As to the current spread of external support to different elements within basic education (teachers, materials, buildings' maintenance, inservice education), it is still too early to point to new patterns. The Development Assistance Committee of the OECD has however commissioned work on precisely this area, and an indication of how educational aid is being realigned in general and within basic education in particular should be available in June 1992, with a draft available at the first International Consultative Forum on Education for All, in Paris December 1991 (Carr-Hill & King, 1991).

5.0 SUMMARY NOTE

The first four of the above five sections (on political mobilisation, on the project mode, on policy-based reform, and on recurrent cost financing) illustrate just a few of the directions in which agency policies have been moving over the

past decade. There is in fact no available overview of this quiet revolution in aid policy, but there is a good deal to suggest that many more radical approaches to aid are in the wind. Jomtien, in retrospect, may partly have acted as a catalyst to encourage and accelerate some tendencies that were already becoming apparent.

It would certainly appear that Jomtien has already acted to spur a rethinking of aid to education. The World Conference was one of the most public occasions where aid was discussed in the same breath as the debt burden of many developing countries. It was also a time - perhaps the first time, when the multilateral agencies (and especially UNICEF) actually asked the question 'What would it cost the world to provide education for all?' These large questions, and the expanded scope of basic education to cover achievement and completion, and not just enrolment, all point to the need to reconceptualise aid.

At the moment, the available literature on education for all is dominated by agency thinking, and particularly multilateral agency. UNESCO already has its 'Guidelines for UNESCO cooperation with member states' in promoting education for all'. UNDP has announced its Education for All follow-up strategy. UNICEF and the World Bank have moved to strengthen significantly their capacity to initiate and respond to requests for support to basic education. To an extent the bilaterals, somewhat more tentatively, have begun to follow these leads, and in some cases have begun to ponder how the particular traditions and advantages of the bilateral approach can be adjusted to the sheer scale of universal provision and minimum standards of achievement. The old ways of doing business - in a small number of countries, and in a series of tightly framed projects - have begun to seem less relevant. In particular, some donors have recognised that their own 'programme countries' are not necessarily those most afflicted by lack of education for all.

But the biggest question mark of all concerns the reaction of the countries themselves to the new expectations of education for all. As UNESCO moves to identify up to five model countries for EFA, and another 35 where it will at least be present to 'help prepare and launch the national EFA initiative', it is important to pause and take stock of how ministers, prime-ministers and presidents in the developing world are considering the national case for EFA.

What made the Commonwealth Ministers of Education meeting in Barbados a peculiarly important staging post in the deliberations about education for all was that the agenda was not specifically designed to produce consensus on the advance towards the goals of Jomtien. 'Improving the quality of basic education' was one of the principal themes of the Conference, but in the open and informal exchanges amongst ministers, as in the country papers, it was possible to detect a rich variety of country responses to the challenge of Jomtien. The range of countries in the Commonwealth, we have said, covers those which have a very long way to go in achieving education for all, and those which have virtually succeeded with the quantitative dimension already, and are

now preoccupied with quality in EFA.

The diversity and commonality of tradition suggest that the Commonwealth family could itself provide a very natural and powerful mechanism of partnership and alliance for follow-up to Jomtien. In particular there is scope for South-South and North-South cooperation in support to good practice in EFA. But any such new modalities must be contingent upon clear signals from individual countries that they are mobilising themselves to pursue these goals, and not adjusting their own priorities to what may seem a set of new conditionalities for acquiring external aid, whether within the Commonwealth or more generally from bilateral and multilateral agencies.

REFERENCES

Carr-Hill R and King K (1991), '22 New patterns of external assistance to basic education', International Consultative Forum, Paris: UNESCO

Coombe T (1991), A consultation on higher education in Africa: a report to the Ford Foundation and Rockefeller Foundation, London: Institute of Education

Frederiksen B (1990), Increased foreign aid for primary education: the challenge for donors, Paris: International Working Group on Education

Gustafsson I (1990), Structural adjustment programmes and project assistance: the need for modifications, Paris: International Working Group on Education

Hawes H et al (1986), Educational priorities and aid responses in Sub-Saharan Africa, London: HMSO

IIEP (1990) Collaborating for educational change: the participation of government, NGOs, and the community in the improvement of basic education, Paris: IIEP

King K (1987), Training for Development, in G Williams et al (Eds), Readings in overseas student policy, London: Overseas Students Trust

Lockheed M and Verspoor A (1990), Improving primary education in developing countries, draft for Jomtien, Washington: World Bank

McNab C (1990), SIDA follow-up to the World Conference on Education for All, NORRAG News 9, December 1990

Troedsson B (1990) a communication in NORRAG News 9:28

UNESCO (1990), Education for all: an action plan by UNESCO to follow up on the World Conference in Jomtien, Paris : UNESCO

UNICEF (1990), A grand alliance for basic learning, World Conference briefing kit, New York: UNICEF. See also UNICEF (1990) Information kit for World Summit for Children, New York : UNICEF

Williams P (1986), African education under siege, in Hawes et al Education priorities and aid responses in Sub-Saharan Africa, London: HMSO

World Bank (1988), Education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Washington: World Bank

World Bank (1990a), Primary Education: a World Bank policy paper, Washington: World Bank

World Bank (1990b), Donors to African Education Information

System: users' guide, Washington: World Bank

World Bank (1991), 'Initiations memorandum: Building educational research and assessment capacity', PHREE, March Washington: World Bank

World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) (1990a) Background document: meeting basic learning needs: a vision for the 1990s, New York: WCEFA

WCEFA (1990b), Framework for action to meet basic learning needs, New York: WCEFA

**A REVIEW OF SELECTED INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES IN BASIC EDUCATION**

Jasbir Sarjit Singh

CONTENTS

	Page
1.0 INTRODUCTION	35
1.1 Internationalisation of Basic Education	35
1.2 Scope of the Paper	36
2.0 THE CONTEXT FOR INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE	37
2.1 Conditions in Developing Countries	37
2.2 Role of Basic Education in Development	38
3.0 AN HISTORICAL NOTE	40
4.0 THE FLOW OF AID	41
5.0 INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH IN BASIC EDUCATION	44
5.1 Increasing Local Capacity	44
5.2 Disseminating Research Findings	46
5.3 Identifying Key Inputs	47
5.3.1 United Nations' Agencies	47
5.3.2 The World Bank	49
5.3.3 USAID	49
5.3.4 WCEFA	51
6.0 SELECTED INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES	53
6.1 Modes of Assistance	53
6.2 Reform and Organisation of Educational Systems	54
6.3 Physical Facilities	56
6.4 Curriculum	57
6.4.1 Curriculum reform	57
6.4.2 Instructional materials	58
6.5 Teachers	59
6.5.1 Teacher training	59
6.5.2 Teacher support	60
6.5.3 Teachers' status and morale	64
6.6 Integrated Multi-Faceted Projects	65
6.6.1 The Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project	65

6.6.2	CBSA Extension, Indonesia	66
6.6.3	The School Improvement Project (SIP), Sind, Pakistan	67
6.6.4	Badulla Integrated Rural Development Programme, Sri Lanka	67
6.6.5	Botswana Primary Education Improvement Project	68
6.6.6	Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE), Zambia	69
7.0	LESSONS LEARNED: STRATEGIES FOR PRIMARY IMPROVEMENT	69
7.1	What Makes School Work	70
7.2	Collaboration among Governments and Donors	70
7.3	Country Specific Solutions	72
7.4	Aid for Sustainable Development	72
7.5	Where Aid is Effective	73
7.6	Co-ordinating Aid	73
8.0	INTERNATIONAL OUTCOMES	74
9.0	A CAUTIONARY NOTE	74
	REFERENCES	76
	BOXES	
Box 1	World Bank Investment In Primary Education Projects, 1963-1983	44
Box 2	IDRC Research Agenda 1987-88	45
Box 3	Blind Alleys and Promising Avenues	49
Box 4	USAID - Lessons Learned	50
Box 5	The New Vision of Education for All	51
Box 6	WCEFA Priorities for School Reform	53
Box 7	Zimbabwe's Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC)	61
Box 8	Field-based Teacher Development in Northern Pakistan (FBTD)	62
Box 9	The Shiksha Karmi Project, Rajasthan, India	63
Box 10	Quality through support for Teachers in Indonesia	64
Box 11	State of Thinking on Quality Education	71

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Internationalisation of Basic Education

For more than thirty years international development agencies have been engaged in trying to assist developing countries improve their education systems. They have attempted to identify critical elements whose introduction into the education system may significantly enhance the quality of schools. Through sponsorship of educational research, international conferences, workshops and networks, these agencies have brought together a body of knowledge concerning quality in education. At the same time they have been instrumental in identifying key personnel who may be expected to make critical contributions to school effectiveness.

Since the mid-1980s a burst of activity by international donor agencies has shown their concern for the quality of basic education. The campaigns by UNICEF for child survival gave rise to the realisation that these strategies had a better chance of succeeding if accompanied by opportunities to acquire basic literacy. The World Bank through its report **Education in Sub-Saharan Africa**, sketched the stark realities of schooling in some of the least developed countries. At the same time UNDP and other agencies have recognised Human Development as the basis for all development, with basic education not merely an investment but the key to improved human resources.

Two events in particular have highlighted the need to pay greater attention to this sector of education which has in the past been in the shadow of secondary and higher education. The proclamation of the International Year of Literacy (IYL) in January 1990, and the World Conference of Education for All (WCEFA) in March 1990, have capped the movement, which had been slowly gaining ground, back to basic education. While it is recognised that secondary and higher education are necessary for the supply of skilled and high level manpower, there is consensus that sustained political and socio-economic development rests upon access to and the quality of the first level of education. Basic education underpins the acquisition of further, appropriate knowledge, skills and values by each country's population, which are all crucial ingredients for successful development.

An initiative led by UNICEF involving the World Bank, UNESCO and UNDP began in 1988. Together, they planned to halt the decline in the provisions for basic education and to bring about improvements through the medium of the WCEFA to be held in Jomtien, Thailand. Receiving co-sponsorship and support from eighteen other agencies, the WCEFA raised the profile of basic education to the international level by bringing it to the notice of all governments and donor agencies. Most importantly, the inter-Agency Commission for WCEFA proposed a dual approach to meeting the basic learning needs of all: a concern with attendance and the number of years of schooling, as well as the knowledge and skills acquired in school. Recognising that both the quantity and quality of basic education are closely intertwined, the WCEFA brought together

these problems to the forefront.

1.2 Scope of the Paper

International agencies working in quite different sectors of education describe their work under the rubric of basic education.

Three principal arenas of basic education emerge:

- the formal instructional process in primary and junior secondary schools, which is the minimum generally considered acceptable for employment;
- provisions for those children of school-going age in primary and junior secondary schools who have missed the opportunity to attend school or have dropped out at a very early age without having attained even basic literacy and numeracy; and
- provisions for adults in a society to receive opportunities to acquire skills in literacy, numeracy and essential human knowledge that enables them to be self-reliant and to make a living.

SIDA has emphasised that formal primary school education is necessary but not sufficient to ensure basic education for all. Promoting other forms of basic education, such as literacy programmes for children, youth and adults is important as part of a broader strategy (SIDA, 1989).

While international efforts in basic education have covered all three arenas the major concern of this paper is with trying to isolate the ingredients that make good schools. It is generally recognised that raising the quality of schools is a necessary condition for improved access to basic education. If the quality of schooling is poor, enrolments fall while the objectives of attaining minimum literacy and numeracy are not achieved. Thus, this paper portrays the contribution of international development agencies to improvements in the formal education sector for the age group of about 6-15 which represents the basic educational level of most developing countries. Two contextual issues which provide the current backdrop for the delivery of aid are briefly sketched, namely the deteriorating educational conditions in developing countries and current thinking related to development among donor agencies. A short historical profile is presented of the changing pattern of donor agencies' involvement in education in developing countries and the flow of aid is described. The international contribution to quality improvement is analysed through (1) their research activities and findings which have influenced developing country education systems, and (2) some of the projects funded by international agencies which highlight strategies that have been employed to effect improvements. Finally, lessons are drawn about basic education for those within education systems in developing countries and for the donor agencies themselves on how aid may better serve the interests of developing countries.

2.0 THE CONTEXT FOR INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE

Declining confidence in the capacity of education systems to enhance the general levels of social and economic development of developing countries has drawn the attention of most agencies to the poor state of education in these countries.

2.1 Conditions in Developing Countries

The deteriorating conditions of education in many developing countries provided the primary impetus to development agencies to intervene. The rapid expansion in enrolments that was undertaken in the 1960s and 1970s brought about problems of increased cost and lower quality. In the 1980s, fanned by recession, budget deficits, and unfavourable balances of payments the capacity of governments to finance education was reduced until the situation reached crisis proportions. In the emerging tensions and competition for scarce resources, priorities have often shifted away from the primary education sector. While salaries of teachers have, usually, been retained (although their real value has shrunk), other resources have been drastically cut (Hallak, 1990).

Many deficiencies in primary education may be noted. The poor state of education is reflected in the low expenditure on education in the developing countries, particularly when compared to developed countries. In 1985 while developed market economies were spending US\$660 per capita on primary schools, the least developed countries were spending as little as US\$7 per capita. In the least developed countries the decline in the expenditure on education is seen as the principal reason for large numbers of children staying away from schools. A growing bulge of non school-age children is also evident (SIDA, 1988 and 1989). Conditions in Sub-Saharan Africa demonstrate the impact of diminished resources for education which is shown by enrolment stagnation, acute shortage of teaching materials, worsening internal efficiency and learning quality (OECD, 1989). Gross enrolment rates in the final grade of primary education were still only 42 in Africa, 50 in Asia and 62 in Latin America (Fredriksen, 1990). Furthermore, primary schools lack the most basic teaching-learning resources such as chalk, writing paper and textbooks, the staff may lack proper training and they often possess low levels of formal schooling; there is poor management and administration, and a lack of incentives for self improvement; and the procedures for student assessment are poor with low levels of achievement (Colclough et al, 1985). In many instances the buildings are of poor quality and in disrepair. Classrooms are crowded with teacher-pupil ratios of maybe more than 1 to 60. There exist inadequate supervisory and support services for the teachers, most of whom function in isolation cut off by poor systems of communication from the supervisors and the central administration. Teachers are suffering from a deep decline in their status in society and in many instances wages are not sufficient for basic living, forcing many to seek supplementary livelihoods. Such grim conditions leave teachers demoralised and demotivated. A desolate picture

emerges of primary education with stagnant enrolment rates, high levels of drop-out and repetition and poor academic performance. There is little doubt that conditions have changed for the worse, placing those achievements which have been made in education over the last twenty years at risk (ODA, 1990).

2.2 Role of Basic Education in Development

All the major donors have recognised the potential of basic education and have turned their attention to programmes of assistance in the basic education sector. There is growing conviction that basic education needs to be given priority as a catalyst for the growth and development of countries. Basic cognitive skills learned in primary schools are the 'building blocks' for success in other sectors and levels of learning. USAID has declared its intention of collaborating in partnership with national governments 'to improve basic education as a cornerstone of its assistance policy' (USAID, nd). UNESCO has for its 1990-95 Medium Term Plan placed priority on literacy and basic education. SIDA, ODA and the World Bank have all initiated programmes in basic education, both in and out of school.

Although it is difficult to isolate the effect of education on economic growth, there is considerable consensus that investment in it does provide a major vehicle for attaining much needed economic growth. Primary education achieves returns of up to 23 per cent in least developed countries compared to 16 per cent from secondary schooling and 13 per cent from higher education (Psacharopolous, 1981). Recent reviews of the research on primary education and economic development have demonstrated the private and social returns from primary schooling, such as an enhanced agricultural output from small farmers, increased propensity of those with primary education to participate in informal work, improved health and improved productivity, and the enhancement of satisfaction in leisure. There are added cognitive advantages for younger children implying that the 'cognitive benefits of high quality secondary and tertiary education following on from low quality primary schooling would be considerably smaller than those which one might expect from some reversal of this qualitative hierarchy'. Quality basic education may bring greater economic benefits than 'expanded access to poor quality education' (Heyneman and White, 1986: 4). Clearly economic and social returns to primary schooling in developing countries are better than other investments in other levels of education (Colclough, 1985).

In nearly all the agency reports the justification for assistance to basic education appears in terms of human resource development towards initiating 'human centred development' (ODA, 1990:9), transferring to developing countries people with competences which will enable self-sustained growth. 'Investing in people' is the motto adopted by all the OECD countries focusing on three aspects of development - growth, equity and sustainability - 'a design for development which emphasises economic growth, involving as participants the whole population and with increasing attention to the many aspects of sustainability'

(OECD 88:27). The key words currently used in all agency literature supports the view of development that invests in people, strengthens capacity, builds local institutions, and assists in the creation of enabling persons. Education effects population growth and the quality of health and vice versa, 'healthy children attend school, sick children drop out' (OECD, 1988: 19).

The intent generally is to develop wide ranging human competences so that developing nations can be assisted to 'help themselves through the sharing of knowledge and expertise' (New Zealand 1988: 1). The most disadvantaged societies in developing countries must be helped to 'seek original and practical solutions to development problems' (IDRC, 1987/88: 5) and 'increase their own productive potential' (ODA, 89:7). Education is recognised as the key energiser for human development; it is the essential ingredient in the improvement of health and nutrition, for maintaining a high quality environment, for expanding and improving labour pools, and for sustaining political and economic responsibility (Hallak, 1990).

Furthermore, primary education reflects and influences parent cultures and is recognised as a significant tool for moulding national identities. Developing countries with their large heterogeneous populations use basic education to transmit national ideologies and to convey a sense of national consciousness. While national governments are keen to develop basic education for their own political, social and economic needs, the developed western economies view support to basic education as a means of not only promoting economic growth but also promoting social justice, equity and democracy. Support to national programmes aiming to meet the needs of basic education is seen as part of a larger effort to achieve wider democratisation and welfare in society (SIDA, 1989).

The agencies are also concerned that the access to quality education is not enjoyed just by a small elite and privileged minority (ODA, 1975). Concerned with the damaging effects of structural adjustment policies UNICEF has drawn attention to the human cost and has suggested that measures be taken to protect the earnings of those with a low income and a lack of access to basic services. In the challenge to put a 'human face' to adjustment UNICEF is suggesting that the highest priority should be accorded to primary education. Bringing human concern to adjustment policies should ensure that other education problems are tackled, such as developing curricula relevant to social progress, issues relating to fees and subsidies, and levels of female participation.

Human development is much more than just the cognitive development of individuals. For the UNDP, human development represents a process of enlarging people's choices - the three essential ones being for people to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of life. Human development enhances the formation of human capabilities and enables their better use. The provision of basic education for all has been identified as the primary avenue leading to

the achievement of human development.

3.0 AN HISTORICAL NOTE

As we have already indicated interest in basic education has gained international attention only in the last few years. During the 1960s and 1970s there was a weak trail of interest in basic education which began to grow during the 1980s. This is clearly supported from the evidence of aid agency budgets and the concentration of research which in the 1960s and 1970s was directed largely at secondary, vocational and technical education and the more prestigious and visible but smaller higher education sector. There was a profound belief among political leaders, development authorities and aid assistance agencies that priority should be given to the production of high level skilled manpower, who would be able to lead their countries to accelerated economic development.

Many of the smaller bilateral agencies, such as Canadian CIDA, Danish DAAD, Dutch NUFFIC and Irish HEDCO, had very clear agendas of their own, with a strong sense of dedication to particular parts of the total education system in which they have some comparative advantage in education aid. Thus they supported English and French language teaching or inter-University cooperation. Most of these agencies lacked the resources and personnel to undertake major sector or sub-sector work and functioned best in small-scale project work (King, 1990). Even SIDA which has a particular focus on basic education had to work on a project basis rather than undertake a major sector review or assistance in any of the countries in which it worked.

The prioritisation of basic education was a slow process, undertaken largely by the World Bank (and to some extent by USAID), which had the resources to commission a large number of research studies to feed into its policy decisions. The lending policies of the World Bank illustrate this. In the early years of its educational lending to developing countries, 1963-70, the World Bank made no loans to the primary education sector, funding largely secondary and technical/vocational education. In 1970 it considered moving away from these 'priority designated areas of eligibility' into selecting priorities and projects on the basis of 'the thorough examination of the education system as a whole'. Primary education lending began in 1970, and between 1970-83 comprised US\$1.4 billion or 14 per cent of the estimated costs of all education projects. This represented under investment in primary education and was not commensurate with their policy statements 'about expanding primary education and meeting the needs of the lower 40 per cent in the socio-economic scale' (Romain, 1985: i).

However, these investments have not been directed at the least developed states of Africa but rather in East Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean. In the late 1980s allocations to basic primary education in these areas have reached 36 per cent.

The intent to examine the sector for crucial variables

affecting learning was accompanied by the desire to find cost-effective solutions. Based on a large number of commissioned studies the Bank has slowly become convinced of the economic benefits of investment in the basic sector of education. The World Bank, IDRC, USAID, SIDA and other bilateral agency work during the 1980s directed efforts at unravelling the mysteries of effective schooling. They began to illuminate the teaching-learning process and to recommend critical inputs that might improve access to and the quality of education. The Bank's literature slowly began questioning some of the conventional wisdom pertaining to class size, training of teachers and nature of physical facilities as effective measures to improve basic education. Most importantly, the Bank became convinced of the findings that in developing societies, unlike in developed industrial societies, the in-school factors were critical determinants of school performance. By the 1990 Education Sector Policy Paper the Bank had woven into its policies much of the research and review of research on class-size, teacher training, physical facilities as well as multivariate analysis determining the major variables.

Other agencies supplemented the World Bank work favouring community-based instruction as in the case of IMPACT studies supported by IDRC, USAID and implemented by INNOTECH. These agencies reinforced the view that no single factor in isolation could bring about significant changes in pupil achievement and the macro-studies had to be supplemented by micro-ethnographic studies to comprehend more closely educational processes.

These changes came alongside a growing awareness that aid agencies had to work their research agendas with greater consideration of the conditions in developing countries, and that any assistance should reduce dependence on assistance and help to develop their own capacities and institutions towards self-sustained development.

4.0 THE FLOW OF AID

Education aid generally forms a small proportion of total assistance provided by multi-lateral and bi-lateral funding agencies to developing countries. The share of education in total development assistance constitutes about 5 per cent of all multi-lateral and 11 per cent of all bi-lateral assistance. The average assistance to education between 1980-86 has comprised 7 per cent of total donor assistance (Hallak, 1990). In 1988 multi-lateral banks and funds paid out US\$30,785 million in aid out of which \$1,254 million or 4.1 per cent was devoted to education. United Nations Programmes and Funds during the same year made a total payment of US\$2,170 million, with US\$246 million or 11.3 per cent spent on education (UNESCO, 1990). Among the multi-lateral agencies the World Bank is the largest single source of such assistance with an average share of 64 per cent of the total during the years 1980-88, followed by the Inter-American Development Bank (11 per cent) and the Asian Development Bank (10 per cent). On a regional basis nearly half of the total development assistance of education by

multi-lateral banks and funds in 1988 was allocated to the Asia/Pacific Region, followed by sub-Saharan Africa (28 per cent) and Latin America/Caribbean region (10 per cent). In each region the World Bank provided the largest amount of resources (UNESCO, 1990).

Aid provided by the donor community constitutes a fairly significant part of the education budgets of developing countries. On average, in recent years aid has made up 4.2 per cent of educational budgets in developing countries (Hallak, 1990). However, aid was not evenly distributed and often the least aid went to the poorest countries and those with the largest populations. The small western African countries received the most aid and the larger populous countries the least. Thus, while Nigeria received about US\$0.10 annually per capita, Botswana received US\$20 per capita annually. Aid agencies seem to like to put their money where they enjoy the greatest visibility and may be expected to make the greatest impact (Orivel and Sergeant, 1990).

The key question is how much of the aid allocated to educational development goes to primary level education and other basic education activities. Generally in the past, donors have accorded a low priority to education and within education to primary education (OECD, 1989). In the most recent figures presented to the International Working Group on Education referring to the year 1989, the World Bank concentrated 33.5 per cent of its loans in education to primary education and the USAID 42.1 per cent. Among the other major donor agencies, IDRC spent 37.7 per cent, IIEP 38.2 per cent, and NORAD 22.5 per cent of their budgets on primary education. Two aid agencies stand out in particular for the high concentration of involvement in primary education, SIDA and UNICEF, which spent 62.7 per cent and 63.1 per cent of their budgets respectively upon primary education (UNESCO, 1990). Australian aid flows through AIDAB largely to the Pacific islands but only 16.2 per cent is directed at primary and secondary education (Maglen, 1990).

As a World Bank report points out, the scale of investment has not been commensurate with the bold policy statements (Romain, 1985). Although, on the whole, by 1990 agencies are on average devoting 30-40 per cent of their funds to primary education, this still represents a low figure considering that in most developing countries primary enrolments comprise 80-90 per cent of all school enrolments. Most of the aid has gone to the secondary, vocational and higher education sectors as international agencies have tried to raise the quality of the technical and high level manpower also considered crucial for national development. The higher education sector has been the most privileged, receiving as much as US\$400 per student in direct aid and US\$1,000 per student if indirect subsidies are added (Hallak, 1989, SIDA 1988, 1989).

Most agencies offer aid directly to the countries of their choice and to the projects/programmes they wish to support, that is those which are in tune with their own philosophies of educational and national development. Thus, USAID whose

congressional mandate is for basic education, and SIDA devote their money mostly to improvements in primary and out of school basic education. The German agencies DSE and GTZ are less inclined to favour primary education and instead support the development of scientific and technological work. ODA has about £1.4 million allocated for basic education by Parliament which it believes in directing to the poorest countries and to projects that will 'enable these countries to increase their own productive potential' (ODA, 89: 7). A considerable proportion, 40 per cent in the case of ODA and 30 per cent in the case of Australia and New Zealand, is dispersed through their contributions to multilateral assistance, primarily UN agencies and the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation (CFTC).

Clearly, the donor community has put its money where it has seen itself as possessing a comparative advantage. The primary sector is seen as too large and too amorphous, and often as not critical to the development of skilled manpower. Most agencies work in specialised areas of interest. Most have historical links to certain fields and possess strengths in these areas. They are confident of the value of this work and have little inclination or resources to spread to new areas (King, nd). Many of them are medium-sized agencies, with limited budgets and insufficient personnel which seem inadequate for such a large sector.

'Assistance from rich countries enjoys an undeniable comparative advantage in highly advanced and specialised sectors, which require more complex, less readily available and more costly educational inputs, that is higher education and technical education' (Orivel & Sergeant, 1988: 465). Aid flows into those sectors of primary education where donors feel they can make an impact. Not surprisingly most of the aid has tended to be capital intensive rather than on recurrent costs. 'In a desire to stay within the well-charted realm of project based capital aid, far too many donors have put their funds into the construction of expensive over-designed school buildings'. (Berstecher and Carr-Hill, 1990:74). Teachers salaries alone make up the bulk of recurrent costs, which agencies feel that they cannot begin to assist with what is seen as pouring money into a bottomless pit. The most common type of aid was budgetary aid (29.9 per cent) and for the construction of schools (23.4 per cent). Aid to primary education also reached through the World Food Programme (13.0 per cent). The supply of school textbooks received a negligible amount (1.8 per cent) of total aid (Orivel and Sergeant, 1990: 8). Thus, international assistance flows mostly into high-cost physical projects rather than badly needed recurrent support for teaching or into improving the conditions of service of the teaching force. An indication of the direction of World Bank investment in Primary Education projects is shown in Box 1.

Not surprisingly evaluators of aid patterns have concluded that the present patterns and levels of aid 'cannot really

**BOX 1 World Bank Investment in Primary Education
Projects, 1963-1983**

Out of a total of 68 Projects investment was made in the items listed below.

Items	No. of Projects
1 Buildings	63
2 Furniture, Equipment and Supplies	65
3 Experts	32
4 Fellowships	29
5 Curriculum Reform	39
6 New Teaching Techniques	47
7 Radio	8
8 Television	6
9 Research Studies	27
10 Examination Reform	4
11 Teacher Supply	45
12 Educational Materials and Textbooks	50
13 School Management	26
14 Central/District Management	14
15 Staff Housing	17
16 Welfare Support/Boarding/Lodging	8

Source: Romain (1985)

reduce the educational inequities in Africa, but rather aggravates them; nor does it help to solve the problems which the education systems face; rather it intensifies them' (Orivel and Sergent, 1990).

5.0 INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH IN BASIC EDUCATION

Development agencies have carried out research and evaluation studies of projects undertaken to improve basic education. These have added significantly to the pool of knowledge about the role of basic education in development as well as the key factors that improve different facets of basic education - access, inputs, learning processes and outcomes.

5.1 Increasing Local Capacity

The first objective of research into basic education in developing countries is to increase their ability to solve

their own problems. Thus, the development of local research skills is the priority in IDRC supported research (Box 2). IDRC, for instance, views the men and women in developing countries who seek original and practical solutions to development problems as valuable resources. Researchers in these countries are in direct contact with those facing problems in the field and are more likely to prepare realistic and workable solutions in these areas. A sense of involvement and ownership of the ideas and reforms should naturally lead to a greater effort to implement them. For IDRC educational research represents one of five programmes in the social sciences. Similar sentiments are expressed by other multi- and bi-lateral agencies.

BOX 2 IDRC Research Agenda 1987-88

In 1987-88, the education program continued its efforts to implement and consolidate strategies designed for the various regions of the developing world. Research on formal, non-formal, and popular education aimed at strengthening indigenous capacities to deal with social, economic, and cultural inequalities in education, on improving teaching-learning processes, as well as on the effectiveness of policy-making in education was supported. Activities in eastern and southern Africa addressed basic problems of individual and institutional capacity building through support to young researchers and networking efforts in Botswana, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zambia. Strengthening the relationship between school and community was the aim of a particularly innovative project in Uganda. In West Africa, a select number of activities was supported in areas of primary importance, including the role of local languages and the implementation of educational reforms.

In East, South and Southeast Asia, issues of social equity, educational quality, and participation continued to be primary concerns. Networking activities through the regional research and advisory group in education received attention as a means to consolidate the links among researchers. Special activities in areas related to the study of qualitative research methodologies were initiated in India and Thailand, the former with the cooperation of the University of Alberta.

General activities supported by the program included workshops of African, Asian and Latin American researchers, teachers, and educational practitioners; publication of state of the art reviews on key problem areas for developing country researchers; and the development of joint activities with other international agencies including the World Bank and the Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development.

Source: IDRC (1988: 28)

5.2 Disseminating Research Findings

Through a variety of media, research findings are made available to educational planners, researchers and scholars in developing countries. All major agencies sponsor conferences and workshops during which findings and current thinking are disseminated. Publications from the major agencies provide the surest avenue for spreading the latest ideas in basic education. Such publications as UNESCO's *Investing in the Future*, UNICEF's *The State of the World's Children*, UNDP's *Human Development*, OECD's *Development Cooperation in the 1990s*, USAID's *Aid and Education: A Sector Report on Lessons Learned*, the World Bank's *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*, and *Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries*, and the WCEFA's *Meeting Basic Learning Needs: A New Vision for the 1990s*, all bear testimony to the research output of agencies.

Formal networks have been established to disseminate the research. Among these are those initiated by IDRC - the Education Research Network of Eastern and Southern Africa, and the Research Review and Advisory programme in education in South-East Asia - which are expected to strengthen communications between educational researchers, policy makers and practitioners in these countries.

The activities of the World Bank in the last few years, leading up to its report on *Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries*, illustrate the role of international agencies in shaping our thoughts about basic education. Basic education gained prominence in the international donor community gradually as a result of research and evaluation studies undertaken largely by the World Bank during the late 1970s and early 1980s. The World Bank commissioned a large number of studies on specific aspects of schooling such as teacher education (Avalos and Haddad), class size (Glass and Smith), textbooks (Verspoor) and their impact on improving classroom processes and performance levels. Many of these studies involved meta-analysis and synthesising the findings of numerous studies undertaken in research organisations and graduate schools all over the world with a view to producing conclusive evidence of the impact of these components of schooling. The more ambitious among these attempted to ask the question in everyone's mind, that is: 'What investments have most effect on learning?' The Bank's own Operations Evaluation Division carried out an appraisal of projects funded by the Bank in the areas of basic education and identified the kinds of investments that were successful and sustainable. To this were added studies assigned to researchers in developing countries as part of education sector loans. Most of these studies attempted *post hoc* to analyse the varying impact of a range of factors upon school achievement. These provided a fairly wide range of country specific contexts for unravelling the relationships between educational resources, processes and outcomes.

The World Bank reports reviewed and brought together the most comprehensive analysis on the determinants of enhanced educational quality. The large pool of information on basic

education focused largely on the resource inputs, both physical and human, that can make a critical difference to learning outcomes. The cumulative research followed by intense discussion at seminars, conferences and workshops led to the preparation for WCEFA of a report on **Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries** (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1990). This represents state-of-the-art thinking among Bank officials and researchers on the questions that have baffled most educational reformers relating to how and where to commence reform efforts. Their conclusions conform with what educationists have always believed instinctively, that schools can be instrumental in determining the performance levels of students and can play a decisive role in improving the quality of basic education. Presented in a fairly clear cut manner, their conclusions may well be attractive to those involved in educational reform.

However, a word of caution is in place. The Bank's summations are based on cumulative research and interpret a broad spectrum of studies to determine what, on balance, the evidence of research is. In the initial studies and the meta-analysis, the strength of the evidence is clear and it is known that evidence which 'consistently' points to one 'avenue' may really consist of only seven out of twelve studies concurring in their findings. As the information has been summarised and filtered upwards for policy implementation, the extent of the evidence together with all the qualifications that accompanied it have been lost (quite naturally). Thus, while there is much that is useful in being given this clear guidance, recipients still need to exercise caution.

5.3 Identifying Key Inputs

All the major agencies express views on what they consider to be critical catalysts for change. Nearly all are convinced that change cannot be effected by manipulating single inputs but rather a range of co-ordinated inputs. The view that educational change in turn must also be integrated with other systems is also strongly held, especially by agencies like SIDA which focuses on the development of rural education. The review that follows highlights areas which the major agencies have stressed as critical for improving schools.

5.3.1 United Nations Agencies

The educational priorities for developing countries emerge mainly from the lead agencies: UNDP and IIEP. In recommending priorities and strategies for future investment in quality improvement their emphasis is upon investment in:

- Teachers, in their training, support conditions of recruitment and status. No education system can expect to improve without a stable, well trained, motivated and accountable teaching force. Incentives, in addition to money, may have to be considered.
- Pedagogical inputs comprising textbooks and writing materials, which not only need to reach teachers and pupils, but need to be used.

- The nature and quality of school buildings and equipment affect what goes on in classrooms and help motivate students to continue in school. 'Overcrowding, dreary surroundings and getting lost in massive classes add up to a cheerless introduction to the adventure of education' (Hallak 1990: 120).
- Increased time in class and for homework.
- Examination reform: the standardisation of examinations combined with continuous evaluation and guidance by teachers.
- Use of alternative educational technologies, such as distance education to help meet the needs of learners in remote areas.

UNICEF has taken up the torch for structural adjustment with a human face, pointing out that if these policies undermine human resources then they weaken future economic capacity. UNICEF favours adjustment strategies which shift expenditure from areas of defence to those of education and health. Giving a human face to education 'should give the highest priority to primary education and to the extent this is secure in access and quality for all children of primary school age, to the other levels of education, including adult education and pre-school' (Cornia, Jolly & Stewart, 1987: 232).

UNICEF has drawn attention to the human concerns in education related to adjustment, including the need for curricula relevant for social progress, the question of fees and subsidies, and female participation in education. Three priorities are identified for maintaining and restoring the effectiveness of basic education:

- Books and teaching materials with priority to the supply of minimum teaching books and aids for the teachers, exercise books and writing materials for the students, and a minimum supply of basic books for the students;
- Building maintenance with community support; and
- Teachers' salaries, which should be relative to the earnings of equivalent cadres and provide both basic needs and incentives.

Since waiting for economic growth before initiating reform would cause delay, strategies need to be evolved which enable educational expansion within the resources already available. This could be attempted, for example, through increasing the share of primary education in the total education budget, the revision of teachers' salaries compared with other employees with similar levels of education, changing pupil-teacher ratios, changing the length of the school cycle, and drawing greater resources from communities and from abroad.

5.3.2 The World Bank

In presenting policy options, the World Bank has examined the major elements in schooling carefully, and these have been summarised in Lockheed and Verspoor (1990). Within each element factors that are shown to have no significant impact on quality improvement or are too expensive resulting in misplaced resources, are designated as 'blind alleys' to be avoided. Those factors which have succeeded in bringing about some measure of quality change are identified as 'promising avenues' to be recommended (Box 3). For instance, the introduction of computers has been found to be less useful and viable than the introduction of good textbooks and teacher guides. Effective teaching, it is pointed out, is less related to basic qualification and initial training and more to the outcomes of in-service training and the introduction of supports for teaching such as interactive radio. Similarly, setting and maintaining firm standards in the amount of learning time is preferred to lowering class size.

BOX 3 Blind Alleys and Promising Avenues

	Promising Avenues	Blind Alleys
Curriculum	Improving implemented curriculum	Adjusting intended curriculum
Learning materials	Good textbooks/teacher guides	Computers in classroom
Time	Setting/maintaining standards for at least 25 hours/week of reading and maths	Class size reductions below 40-50 students
Teaching	Inservice training, interactive radio instruction, programmed materials	Lengthy preservice pedagogical training
Teachability	Preschools targeted at disadvantaged, snacks/breakfast, micro-nutrient supplementation, parasite treatment, vision and auditory screening	School lunches

Source: Lockheed and Verspoor (1990:5b)

5.3.3 USAID

From a review of international aid and research programmes in education, USAID has drawn important lessons for the improvement of basic education through such strategies as increased access for women, strategic planning and management, the use of instructional technologies and in-service teacher training (Box 4).

BOX 4 USAID: Lessons Learned

USE OF INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGIES

What works in Programmed Teaching/Learning...

- programmed teaching/learning systems provide an effective, affordable and sustainable means to improve the quality of primary education, especially in settings where teachers are poorly trained and in short supply.

What Works in Interactive Radio...

- Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) has improved levels of student achievement significantly in traditional primary schools during the past 15 years at very low cost. IRI has also increased access to primary education through non-formal radio schools. More than 610,000 students are now learning each day through IRI.

What Works in Textbook Use...

- the reading level of textbooks should be adapted to the language capabilities of the children. Vocabulary should be relevant to daily life with understandable examples and illustrations.
- pitfalls, such as lack of sustainability in textbook supply, an inadequate distribution system, slippage in writing and production schedules, procurement problems and inadequate teacher training in their use, need to be prepared for.

TEACHER TRAINING

- typical preservice teacher training contributes little to educational quality; inservice training may be more effective and is less costly.

In Haiti ...

- successful training is geared to applied learning in a workshop setting emphasizing hands-on experiences and transfer of practical skills for classroom use.
- since good organization tends to be the best predictor of teacher performance, complementary inservice training for school principles and directors is a good investment.

In Swaziland and Botswana...

- the 'multiplier effect' format is an effective approach to training primary school teachers.

Source: USAID (1990)

5.3.4 WCEFA

The inter-agency World Conference on Education for All moved the issue of basic education back into the global arena, convinced that only a 'world-wide commitment to action can meet a challenge of this magnitude' (WCEFA, 1990b). Encouraged by global initiatives towards peace and international cooperation, scientific and cultural developments and the exemplary successes of countries in Europe, North America and recently Japan, Korea and Singapore, WCEFA unveiled the 'new vision' for all in education, a vision that would meet the basic learning needs of children, youths and adults (Box 5).

BOX 5 The New Vision of Education for All

The new vision emphasized learning competence, flexible and varied forms of delivery systems, building new alliances among various institutions, mobilizing new resources and enhancing the environment for learning. This vision is to be translated into a global, sustained and long-term effort to meet the basic learning needs of children, youth and adults. The quality of learning must be improved and basic education made available equitably to different groups in the population. Until primary schooling becomes universal, supplementary alternative programmes with high learning standards can help meet the basic learning needs of children who have limited or no access to schools. Youth and adults also should have access to many types of education programmes to meet their learning needs. All available channels of information and community-based channels, need to be used to provide essential knowledge and skills for living.

Source: WCEFA (1990b)

A broad view perceives basic learning needs to include 'the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes people need to survive, to live in dignity, to continue learning, to improve the quality of their own lives and their communities and nations. Basic learning enables people to make informed decisions, to take advantage of opportunities, to adapt to changes and to take initiatives benefiting themselves and others' (WCEFA 1990a).

The background document spells out the components of the 'new vision'. It means bringing a new focus within basic education which is concerned not simply with access, participation or certification but lays stress on the achievement of desired learning outcomes, both measurable cognitive outcomes and demonstrable achievements in affective areas such as attitudes, values, and behaviour. The scope of basic education may be extended from the formal primary

school to other vehicles, including religion, community activities, radio and television which include channels that meet the basic learning needs of youths and adults study circles, distance education programmes and agricultural extension services which may also disseminate information on health, sanitation, child care and agriculture. New resources need to be marshalled to finance basic education, including from the government, from expanded participation by non-government agencies, communities and families, as well as from external funding agencies. New partnerships will need to be forged within governments, between ministries and among countries. Finally, the success of the new vision will depend upon an improved understanding of the preconditions and constraints of learning and of the social, cultural and economic environments in which it takes place.

The WCEFA highlights four sets of determinants of quality education:

- **Characteristics of Students:** the mix of students that enter depends upon their health, nutrition, opportunities for physical and mental stimulation, and the social, economic and demographic patterns of the society.
- **Educational Inputs:** these represent the most important determinants of quality and include teacher characteristics, the availability of educational materials, equipment and facilities, administrative and supervisory activities, and summary measures such as expenditure per pupil. Teacher characteristics include formal academic study, teacher training, subject mastery, verbal ability and availability (attendance rates and pupil/teacher ratios). Although there is no consistent and positive relationship between availability of equipment and facilities, there appears to be 'a clear threshold of general availability and quality of facilities necessary for learning to take place' (WCEFA 1990b: 44). All educational inputs are ineffective without school and system administrators who are critical in enabling instruction and the processes of motivating teachers.
- **Educational Processes:** improving quality through changing instructional processes is difficult to achieve but as a minimum foundation for reform the time children allocate to learning tasks may be calculated and, where appropriate, increased.
- **Educational Outputs and Outcomes:** the measurement of school quality may be used to influence the quality of teaching and learning.

Thus efforts to improve school quality require a determination of school outcomes coupled with the identification and management of multiple inputs to the system (Box 6).

BOX 6 WCEFA Priorities for School Reform

A systematic effort to improve school quality requires specification and measurement of the desired school outputs and identification of how the multiple inputs of the system interact within the learning process to produce the desired school outputs. The current understanding of these relationships suggests the following priorities for primary schooling reform: (1) improving the availability and use of instructional materials; (2) enhancing teacher effectiveness by emphasizing subject mastery, communication skills, and teacher motivation; (3) improving managerial skills, community and institutional structures, and individual and organizational incentives; and (4) increasing the time actually spent on learning. When these priorities are linked with improved preconditions for learning that enhance pupils initial capacities, and with community environments that reinforce learning, true gains can be made in school quality and learning achievement for all.

Source: WCEFA (1990a:48)

6.0 SELECTED INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

Reflecting their concern towards basic education, international agencies have promoted activities in those areas where either the need has been felt the greatest, or where it is believed the greatest effect might be expected. The majority of agencies concentrate on projects that provide specific forms of change or innovation putting into practice what educators know and believe to be the fundamentals of good basic education. Among these are changes to curriculum, teacher training, and the introduction of instructional materials and other media. Other changes are planned in more comprehensive and integrated packages to effect changes along a broad front on the assumption that only multi-faceted change can make any significant difference to educational quality. It is quite clear that quality can not be considered in isolation from quantity if the full benefit is to be derived from a programme of educational development. Improvements in quality affect the efficiency of education systems enabling more children to complete their schooling in shorter periods of time, with the same or better results (ODA 1990).

6.1 Modes of Assistance

There is a considerable awareness and sensitivity to the special needs of developing countries which is giving rise to greater efforts at working in collaboration and partnership with governments and to find ways of engendering sustainable development. Thus, ODA sets its objectives to work in partnership with governments to 'make a demonstrable improvement in improving the skills needed to achieve

sustainable development in a wide range of human activity' (ODA, 1990: 10-11). Similarly, SIDA puts faith in the constant process of discussion between all involved partners. Donor support is viewed (by donors) as essential for improvement in the long term capacity of governments and institutions, and in achieving sustainable growth.

In view of financial constraints, donor activity concentrates on the need for resource mobilisation and the execution of programmes that are cost effective. This has led to a clear movement away from the programme-based approach to that of technical cooperation. Tighter control is exercised enabling everyone concerned, from the designers to the implementers of projects, to have a clearer idea of progress. Frequently, basic education measures in the formal and non-formal education sectors are linked to major projects of rural and regional development, mutually strengthening each effort. GTZ in the Central African Republic, Senegal and Togo, and ODA in Sri Lanka have adopted such approaches.

On the whole there is consensus that reform must involve a number of critical points, as has been shown by the School Improvement Project in Pakistan that the combined effort is greater than the sum of the individual parts. The magnitude of the problems has however persuaded agencies at times to collaborate and undertake joint efforts. The World Bank has co-operated with the ODA in supplying books in Nigeria, undertaking curriculum reform in Jordan and funding the 'Feed the Minds' Project in Sierra Leone. Above all countries are at different levels of development, with different resources available to them and quite specific socio-political contexts. No single plan or strategy can be applicable to all. Therefore, country specific solutions have to be sought for what may appear to be quite common problems.

Agencies have had to make choices and select areas for aid from which they think the greatest multiplier effect may be expected. In determining these priorities for offering aid the following appear persistently as the approaches adopted (SIDA 1988):

- flexible sector approach rather than more conventional project approach,
- rendering existing systems more effective, and
- financing current costs required for quality improvement

A review of current priority investment areas follows.

6.2 Reform and Reorganisation of Educational Systems

Few references are made in agency literature to the overall planning and reorganisation of educational systems in developing countries. The design and structure of systems has generally been regarded the prerogative of national governments themselves and few governments wish to be seen to involve foreign agencies in the reform of their systems. On a more subtle note, the major agencies, especially the World

Bank, are able to bring pressure to bear upon the governments to make changes in certain desired directions. By making loans dependent upon structural adjustment the Bank can force the rethinking and replanning of education within the context of the larger society.

Nevertheless, some agencies have been engaged in promoting dialogue on reform among developing countries as in the case of the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) which has 'dialogue and training' as its motto. While its training programmes are geared to improving the ability and readiness of people to organise themselves and solve their problems together, its dialogue sessions aim to influence existing political, economic, social and administrative frameworks and thus to help partner countries find their own path to development. More specifically DSE has been engaged in a series of multi-year programmes designed to assist with the development of the education system of Malawi (DSE, 1989), and the Education, Science and Documentation Centre (ZED) supports a series of programmes designed to promote a dialogue in Africa on educational reforms.

USAID in its sustained involvement in countries like Nepal and Mali has had quite a significant impact in shaping their educational policies and development. In Nepal USAID was involved with planning quantitative expansion, the training of teachers, curriculum renewal and textbook production. In Mali USAID has assisted with reform to implement and monitor educational policy adjustments including improved training for primary school teachers, principals and regional inspectors.

USAID expects to influence educational reform in developing countries through its Basic Research Implementation in Developing Education Systems (BRIDGES) and Awakening Basic Education and Literacy (ABEL) programmes. ABEL's purpose is to assist least developed countries to plan, manage and operate education systems with efficiency and effectiveness. It is currently focussing on new education activities in Mali and Ghana. The BRIDGES programme, jointly carried out by the USAID Bureau of Science and Technology, the Harvard Institute for International Development and the Harvard Graduate School of Education studies policy options that can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of basic education and to make the research findings available to policy makers, planners and managers in developing countries so as to facilitate their evaluation of the feasibility, cost and impact of alternative paths of educational development. USAID activities include an examination of the 'appropriateness of central policies, budget priorities and opportunities for assistance' (USAID nd). USAID offices in countries are encouraged to support policy dialogue and analyses of educational issues, even where they are unable to fund the expansion and reform of educational systems directly.

In a similar way SIDA has been involved in the reform of the six year primary school in Guinea Bissau carrying out reform in four areas: pedagogical research, teacher training, production and distribution of textbooks and other learning materials, and in the construction and repair of primary

schools.

Many of the World Bank projects cite greater efficiency as a reform objective, in most cases this has implied greater internal efficiency. Project managers wishing to improve the primary school process attempted to liberalise promotions (Burundi, Morocco), shorten the primary cycle (Burundi, Madagascar), or improve remedial teaching (Barbados, Morocco). In some projects economies and improved cost-effectiveness were sought, while in others it was intended to reduce wastage and improve attendance by providing school meals (Morocco), uniforms (Bangladesh), textbooks (in over 70 per cent of the projects), locate schools more strategically (most projects) and to adjust the school term in the light of crop cycles (Bolivia). External efficiency was most likely to be achieved from greater relevance of curriculum by increasing productivity and employability (Romain, 1985).

6.3 Physical Facilities

Among development agencies there is a consensus that what goes on in classrooms will be improved and may reduce dropout rates in early grades where overcrowding, dreary surroundings and large classes provide a poor introduction to formal learning (Hallak, 1990). One of the major objectives of early World Bank loans before 1985 was to support the expansion of the school system as part of the initiative of countries to attain universal primary education - mostly by building more schools. Often the focus was on the most disadvantaged and rural areas which lacked school places. Some school building plans were linked to equalising opportunities among ethnic, linguistic groups (Malaysia, Bolivia, Ethiopia) and for girls (Bangladesh, Bolivia and Ethiopia). A World Bank survey of lending in primary education recorded that sixty-three of sixty-eight selected projects included the provision for new school buildings. (Box 1) However there seems to have been little emphasis upon cost-effective designs or those suitable for construction with self-help efforts of villages (Romain: 1985). These school buildings erected at considerable expense to the borrowing governments have been more often than not described as 'over-designed'. It also seems that the experience of low-cost buildings that can be maintained by villagers in one country (Liberia) and with the support of one agency (UNESCO) has not been generalised.

Bank projects have paid little concern to the more efficient use of school buildings, although double shifts and the use of buildings by adults in the evening are foreseen or implied in some project documents. Possibly because the majority were in rural areas, with scarce populations, the question of more intensive use seemed irrelevant.

Among the other agencies, USAID, ODA and SIDA have invested in physical plant. USAID lists access to basic school facilities as one of the essential ingredients for an effective education system. USAID has assisted the construction of nearly 8000 primary schools between 1951 and 1974 in Nepal, and in Grenada, through the Caribbean

Development Bank, eleven schools were repaired, refurbished and expanded with positive results. Its programme of construction of school facilities in Egypt resulted in the increased enrolments of girls by 29 per cent and reduced dropouts by 17 per cent.

Similarly, the ODA has contributed to building programmes. This has been made through a specific facility such as the provision of primary school furniture in Lesotho, or has been incorporated as part of a package of measures as in the case of the Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project in India. The latter included in its first phase the construction of twenty buildings intended to provide a more suitable environment for child centered learning. Important features of these buildings were a larger than usual size, a more appropriate orientation to the sun, adequate natural lighting and ventilation, display areas on walls, storage for teachers' and pupils' materials and the provision of large wall mounted blackboards. Buildings were constructed from the most economic materials using local labour, land was provided by the community, and toilet facilities, a borehole and electricity were added to the facilities (ODA, 1990, IIEP/IWGE, 1990). Like ODA, SIDA has carried out school construction and repair as part of coordinated programmes of reform as in Guinea Bissau.

Within bilateral inter-agency financial cooperation German assistance programmes provide assistance in supplies of materials, equipment and school buildings. This has happened in the case of World Bank and Kreditanstalt fur Wiederaufbau (KfW) co-operation in Niger.

6.4 Curriculum

Assistance in overall curriculum reform is rare, although a few instances are available. Most of the projects make available instructional materials or provide some assistance in improving assessment and evaluation procedures.

6.4.1 Curriculum Reform

The ODA is engaged in curriculum reform in Jordan and the German ZED has conducted advanced training of curriculum specialists concentrating on long-term training courses in curriculum development and evaluation.

The building of Curriculum Development Centres (CDCs) has been expected to trigger off curriculum thought, planning and innovation. The World Bank has financed a number of these in conjunction with host governments and sometimes with other aid agencies. In Vanuatu, for instance, the World Bank has collaborated with the Australians to build a CDC as a part of the education sector investment. The CDC in Malaysia 'has had an impressive record of work in curriculum development, research, in-service training and educational leadership in general' (Romain 1985: 59).

The World Bank has attempted a number of curriculum reforms in developing countries. Among the changes attempted have been efforts at 'ruralising' the curriculum, adjusting the

primary school cycle and making provisions for national languages. It has often been alleged that primary schools especially those in rural areas 'alienate children from their rural life, promote disdain of labour and stimulate the rural exodus'. Primary education is expected to inculcate the values and culture of each society, teach basic literacy and numeracy, and the capacity to work in harmony with the natural environment. In nineteen out of twenty-five countries reviewed by the Bank some effort at making the curriculum more relevant were included. The most common device was to 'include domestic or rural arts and agricultural and pre-vocational skills in the curriculum' (Romain 1985: 10-14).

6.4.2 Instructional Materials

A wide range of projects have tried to introduce better instructional materials. The ODA has placed emphasis on the supply of books and other information media. It has financed textbooks to support English Language teaching and training courses for textbook development in Jamaica. Books are supplied to Nigerian schools while the 'Feed the Minds' Project in Sierra Leone receives support through the publication of materials for literacy campaigns.

The GTZ has a large number of projects in this field. It has produced handbooks for teachers in Malawi, supplied materials in Rwanda, and developed teaching materials for mother tongue teaching in Ecuador and Peru. In Indonesia GTZ produces and distributes teaching materials to support experimentation and demonstration in science subjects for Grades 3 to 5. Textbooks and teacher handbooks are supplied to lower primary schools and for adult education in Pakistan. Similarly, in the Andean countries teaching materials are supplied to primary schools.

The production and supply of materials represents one of four major areas the USAID works in largely through project based assistance. Through USAID projects in Jamaica 350,000 primary school students have received newsprint textbooks resulting in improved classroom performance and test scores. Programmed instructional materials have reached 75,000 pupils in Liberia aimed at improving classroom achievement. Both USAID and the Canadian IDRC have supported IMPACT programmes in the Philippines and Malaysia, devising low-cost materials to support an innovative teaching strategy that is intended to enable one teacher handle large numbers of learners at the same time. It is based on the concept of modular and individualised instruction with one instructor handling 80-100 students. In addition the local community is expected to provide a variety of learning venues and resources.

SIDA is well aware of the importance of educational materials in the learning process and focuses on their development in a number of developing countries. In Tanzania SIDA has cooperated for more than ten years to provide and distribute textbooks to primary school students.

Smaller agencies restrict their work to specific regions. Australian Aid, working mostly in the South Pacific, assists

with the printing and distribution of curriculum materials. The Harold Macmillan Trust, working largely in Africa, promotes research into the use of local resources as primary school teaching aids in Malawi and Tanzania, while in Uganda it sponsors the Teacher Education Materials Development Project for the local writing and publication of teacher training materials.

UNESCO and UNICEF provide worldwide assistance in the supply of toys, tools, equipment, books and other educational materials.

The World Bank has increasingly introduced components related to materials in its lending to basic education projects. Textbook provision in projects is the most common. In a sample of twenty-five Bank projects ten had included textbooks, although the targets for provision varied from country to country. In Rwanda and Burundi each pupil was to receive one book, Malawi set three books per pupil as a target, while Colombia expected to provide one book for every two or three pupils. The experience of donors suggests that the best materials result from supporting the self-reliant development of teaching materials in-country. Printing materials within a country helps to strengthen local economic structures as well as ensure relevant and cost-effective materials. GTZ has projects in Jordan, Indonesia and Zimbabwe which develop local materials using local expertise and production facilities.

6.5 Teachers

A number of issues pertaining to teachers have received attention from donor agencies. The majority address themselves to thorny problems in the provision of teacher training, both pre-service and in-service, teacher support, and in enhancing teacher status and motivation.

6.5.1 Teacher Training

The extension of teacher training was considered in most of the Bank's projects to expand and improve education. Of twenty-five projects reviewed by Romain between 1970 and 1983, twenty-two included components of teacher training. Some merely extended existing training systems (Bangladesh, Barbados, Liberia, Malawi, Malaysia). In others, the in-service training capacity was increased as in Malaysia providing in-service training in new curricula and in the use of educational broadcasting, and in Bolivia through one month comprehensive in-service courses on new curricula, materials, radio, bilingualism, multi-grade teaching, community development and new equipment. In many countries in-service training was linked with the introduction of new textbooks. Training for the teaching of practical subjects were included in a number of projects (Barbados, Burundi). New district level agencies for in-service training were established in some (Madagascar, Malaysia). Some attention was given to increasing the proportion of female teachers (Liberia) through increased accommodation for women at the teacher training institute, and by lowering entry requirements for

female teachers (Bangladesh).

Quite a number of innovative training programmes have been attempted to overcome acute teacher shortages. Zimbabwe's UNESCO-UNICEF integrated teachers' course (ZINTEC) for untrained teachers in primary schools imparts survival skills (Box 7). The Aga Khan Foundation supports a successful Field Based Teacher Development Project (FBTD) in North Pakistan to provide on-the-job training for serving but unqualified women teachers (Box 8). USAID in its Northern Nigerian Teacher Education Project (NNTEP) continued work initiated by the Ford Foundation to improve the quality of teacher training by placing tutors in the teachers' colleges and advisers in the Ministry of Education and Institute of Education. ZED has developed distance study courses for staff of basic education programmes in Eastern and Southern Africa (DSE, 1989). In India, SIDA funded Shikhsa Karmi Project tries to overcome the shortage of trained teachers in rural areas (Box 9).

6.5.2 Teacher Support

Teachers, particularly those who are poorly qualified and trained, may benefit from a range of ways of providing support. Aid agencies have been mostly concerned with instructional materials, as we discussed earlier under curriculum. The World Bank made some attempts to promote educational radio in the early 1970s but the uptake and utilisation was poor. USAID funded projects in Kenya and Nicaragua using interactive radio have been successful but faltered in Kenya when funding ceased. Similarly, educational television, tried out in the Ivory Coast, failed to make an impact because of major technical problems and a poor capacity for programme production.

Recent donor activity has brought to prominence the need for professional and pedagogical support for teachers. A good instance of this may be drawn from Indonesia where the ODA assists the government of Indonesia to promote active learning in primary schools (ODA, 1990). Extending the original Cianjur Project (Box 10) support is provided through centres of better practice, teachers' professional support groups for each small cluster of schools where teachers meet to discuss and evaluate teaching strategies, teacher resource centres and coordinating committees at district and sub-district levels.

Pedagogical support for teachers through the preparation of teacher manuals and guides is undertaken by many donor agencies. The DSE works to improve quality through providing better teacher guides, subject related training, monitoring, advising and making available assistance through specialists. SIDA works within its projects to bring both books for teachers and basic textbooks for students. The supply of basic materials for classroom teaching including writing paper, blackboards, desks and chairs, is now receiving attention from agencies. ODA and SIDA, in particular, appear to be placing a premium on such support for teachers.

**BOX 7 Zimbabwe's Integrated Teacher Education Course
(ZINTEC)**

Governments are confronted with the problem of recruiting sufficient teachers to meet their education objectives. Zimbabwe's Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) is a good example of a program that both attracts and retains new teachers.

The introduction of free primary education in the wake of independence created an unprecedented rise in the number of children attending primary school in Zimbabwe. Primary school enrolments increased from 800,000 in 1980 to over 2,000,000 by the end of 1982. To meet this demand, the teaching corps was increased from 21,000 to 54,000 by 1983. About 15,000 of these teachers were untrained. A four-year sandwich program was introduced to rapidly expand and train this teaching force. Students attend a 16-week residential course, followed by ten terms of teaching, and finish with another 16-week residential course. During the period of on-the-job training, students continue their studies through correspondence courses and are assessed in class by visiting monitors. By 1986, over 8,000 students had graduated from the program from eleven intakes at four colleges.

The program emphasizes non-financial incentives. During the out-placement period, students are deployed in clusters of three or more per school, in order to encourage their interaction, maintain their enthusiasm, and facilitate school-based tutorials. The course curricula emphasize community projects - the construction of Blair toilets in rural villages being a notable example - which helps the teacher play a pivotal role in community affairs. The ZINTEC project is seen as a shining example of 'Zimbabweanization', a home-grown success. The emphasis on sacrifice and self-reliance, coupled with the abandonment of learning as a privileged commodity, has benefited the teaching profession as a whole and inspired the flow of new applicants to the profession.

Substantive material and professional inducements are also used to encourage participation in the program. Tuition, food and lodging are provided free during the residential courses, and correspondence materials are provided free during the period of out-placement. A stipend is paid to every student when she/he joins the program, and is increased as various parts of the cycle are completed, so that, on graduation, the student receives the standard salary of a certified primary school teacher. In return the students are bound to serve the government for a period of three years after graduation.

Source: Lockheed and Verspoor (1990: 65)

BOX 8 Field-Based Teacher Development in Northern Pakistan (FBTD)

FBTD, as the full title implies, provides on-the-job training for serving but unqualified women teachers in the remote, mountainous valleys of Northern Pakistan. Ten such trainees are posted to the nearest five-grade primary school to their own home village for an entire academic year, any trained teachers already at that school being posted elsewhere for the duration. At the end of the year they sit the Primary Teachers' Certificate (PTC) examination as private candidates. A handpicked headteacher and deputy are posted to the school as Master Trainers (MT). The ten trainees teach throughout the school year in pairs: during the first three lessons of the day trainee A teaches while trainee B observes and makes notes, then for lessons 4-6 the roles are reversed. The MT supervise the practice teaching, giving demonstration lessons early on in the school year, and then periodically as occasion demands. At the end of each school day, the trainees stay behind to discuss the day's work as a group with the MT. Special manuals have been prepared explaining how to teach each new topic in maths, science, social studies, Urdu and Islamiyat. Additional manuals exist to cover the other subjects which the trainees must take at the end of the year as part of the PTC exam. The pairing of trainees and their allocation to a given class are changed at regular intervals so that by the end of the year each trainee has had the experience of teaching all five grades and of being observed by different colleagues. This mode of training is popular with female teachers and their families, since it allows them to gain professional status without having to leave their home valleys and go to college in a distant city.

320 teachers have been trained since 1984 in the Northern Areas and 120 since 1988 in Chitral. Nearly 90 per cent have passed the Government exam, many at the first attempt. The unit cost of the training is estimated at approximately \$1,000 which is similar to the cost of training in a newly built conventional college. A cadre of Learning Supervisors (LS) is being built up; these are ex-MT and other experienced teachers who leave their own schools two days each week to give professional advice to newly trained teachers in surrounding schools.

A review of the project by Bude and Chowdhry concludes: 'The project has brought a new dynamic into a hitherto static educational system. Ideas for better classroom teaching have been revived and alternative methods to the conventional mode of training primary school teachers have been introduced'.

Source: Greenland (1990)

BOX 9 The Shiksha Karmi Project, Rajasthan, India

This a six-year project funded by SIDA and the Government of India aimed at revitalising and expanding education in about 2000 remote and socio-economically backward villages in Rajasthan. The project attempts to solve problems of:

- poor enrolment, particularly of girls,
- high drop-out rates,
- teachers' absenteeism, and
- poor local relevance of the curriculum.

The crucial innovation in the project is the substitution of the primary school teacher by a team of two educational workers, 'Shiksha Karmis'. Unlike the school teachers in the project villages, the Shiksha Karmi is a local person, living in the village.

The Shiksha Karmis have about eight years of primary schooling and are selected on the basis of their aptitude and the villagers' preferences. After a month of training the two Shiksha Karmis in a village teach about 40-50 children for two to three hours per day. To reach children who do not attend day school, they open 'night centres' at places convenient to the learners, teaching another 45-50 pupils for about two hours per evening.

The curriculum and teaching methods are expected to make the learning process child-centred and related to the environment and to improve the pace and quality of learning. The voluntary educational worker receives continual support and encouragement through an intensive system of monitoring, participatory evaluation, refresher courses and upgrading training.

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development,
Department of Education, India (1987)

The establishment of effective institutional, administrative and supervisory support has been singled out in some projects. World Bank projects have provided support for central and district offices to enhance administrative and professional leadership, Curriculum Development Centres, Resource Centres, and Education Media Centres. In Malaysia all these elements were present, and in Madagascar five Regional Education Centres and a National Teaching Materials Production Centre have been provided. More recently efforts have been made to strengthen school supervision, for example in Bangladesh.

BOX 10 Quality through Support for Teachers in Indonesia

In 1980, in the Cianjur district in West Java a project was initiated for promoting better and more active learning in primary schools. The main thrust has been to replace traditional classroom instruction by an activity-based and problem-oriented approach in the learning processes of the children. These goals are in keeping with the national philosophy which emphasises the formation of development oriented human beings, possessing knowledge and skills that enable the development of creativity, responsibility, tolerant and democratic attitudes as well as high intellectual capacity. 'Active student learning' (Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif) became the key target. The teacher was identified as the prime agent of quality change and the modification of teacher behaviour recognised as the primary objective. Teacher behaviours that were activity oriented were identified.

To assist teachers effect these changes a new system of professional support was conceived which laid emphasis not only on the supportive role of headteachers and supervisors but also upon the way in which teachers were able to support each other. A conscious change was made from supervision to support in the field. The key feature of the support scheme is the regular meetings of teachers to evolve new approaches to the topics to be taught. This is accompanied by regular meetings of headteachers and supervisors. Innovative in-service training programmes for various levels of staff were based at the Institute of Education, London, and in Cianjur with a practical style of training emphasising the production of teaching materials and teacher handbooks.

Evaluations of the project note significant improvements in classroom methods and approaches. Classrooms are found to be happier, livelier and more attractive places with displays of work and children working co-operatively. Students from these schools are found to be more resourceful and better motivated. Their levels of performance in public examinations, after an initial dip, have consistently risen. However, improvements are not evenly distributed and teachers in some sub-districts have shown a greater capacity than in others to benefit from the project.

Source: Tangyong et al (1989)

6.5.3 Teacher Status and Morale

From many years of investing in teacher training and support, donors now realise that their contributions have been most successful in places where there is also job and career advancement opportunities and salary incentives (USAID,

1984). These are rarely in the control of donors, and realisation of this has led to more attention being given to the parallel enhancement of incentives. Teachers' salaries, it is suggested, should relate to the earnings of other cadres and provision should be made to ensure, at least, their basic needs. Some World Bank projects have provided teachers' quarters in rural areas to try to make working there more attractive. The ODA expects to raise the motivation and skill levels of teachers in Lesotho by supporting the appointment of co-ordinators in school clusters.

Zimbabwe's ZINTEC project (Box 7) also emphasised non-financial incentives for teachers. During their placement in schools students are deployed three or more per school, in order to enhance interaction and encourage school based tutorials.

6.6 Integrated Multi-faceted Projects

Most donors seem to have learned from their investments that initiating change in limited areas of the education system is likely to be futile. New curricula and teaching methods cannot take root unless they are accompanied by relevant teacher training strategies, both pre-service and in-service. The more lasting effects come from co-ordinated programmes that introduce changes simultaneously in a number of key areas. More programmes now aim to introduce and sustain a range of innovations over longer periods. The following case studies provide a review of a selection of donor-assisted programmes in developing countries which highlight the areas of intervention, strategies of implementation, and outcomes. It will be seen that the agencies have assembled a variety of packages to improve basic schooling but nearly all of them include some components of teacher upgrading and motivating, and the production of teaching-learning materials for use both by students and teachers. Administrative and advisory support is included together with the achievement of a strong sense of commitment from the recipient governments. A fair amount of attention is paid to improving the learning environment, through the construction of better and more suitable buildings and the supply of minimum levels of equipment, furniture and consumable materials. The package of critical inputs that make a difference to the quality of schooling appear to vary only slightly from project to project.

6.6.1 The Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project

The ODA made available to the government of India in 1983 a sum of L1 million to finance in Andhra Pradesh Phase I of a primary schools project, together with L300,000 from Technical Co-operation funds for Human Resource Development. The project aims to improve the quality of primary education in Andhra Pradesh by providing new school classrooms of improved quality and improving human resources by enhancing the quality of the work of teachers and supervisors. At the end of Phase I (1987) 84 new primary school classrooms had been constructed and a Primary Schools Project Design Guide published. Training had been provided in Britain to teacher

educators, educational administrators and supervisors who are lead agents in the introduction of child centred learning. Teachers and officials at school, village and district levels are given training locally. Each school was allocated 500 rupees per year (about L12) for the purchase of equipment and materials. Evidence from the evaluation of Phase I suggests that school buildings and materials are much appreciated, the cascade system of training courses has worked well in conjunction with Teachers' Centres which are needed for long term support, and there have been increases in enrolments and attendance, and a decline in dropouts particularly in the pilot schools which were provided with new buildings and trained staff. During Phase II of this project stretching over five years (1989-94), all the primary schools in Andhra Pradesh will be brought into the project at a cost of L35 million from the ODA.

The project has set itself six principles to improve learning by:

- providing learning materials,
- promoting learning by doing,
- promoting individual group and whole class work,
- recognising individual differences amongst the children, - using the environment, and
- creating interesting classrooms.

A tripartite review comprising the government of India, Andhra Pradesh and the United Kingdom declared the project a 'notable success' and particularly stressed the great improvement of classroom teaching techniques in project schools. Of special significance has been the observable difference in classroom practices, teacher competences, elimination or reduction of traditional rote learning methods together with decline in dropouts (ODA 1989). Two inputs are considered to have made the most difference; the supply of consumable materials to the project schools brought a dramatic and favourable change in classroom practices, while the supply of a teachers' handbook and newsletters helped teachers and supervisors to improve their competence.

6.6.2 CBSA Extension

Another ODA project aims to bring qualitative improvements through student active learning and professional support for primary teachers in Indonesia. This is a five year project, an extension and development of the earlier Cianjur Project, 1979-84, involving the Balitbang Dikbud (Office of Research and Development), Ministry of Education, the British Council and the UK link institution, University of London Institute of Education. The acronym CBSA translates as 'Student Active Learning' but it incorporates the concept of professional support for teachers (Box 10).

The CBSA approach has been incorporated into the curriculum revisions of 1984 which are being disseminated gradually through Ministry channels such as the Curriculum Division and the Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education. The ODA is planning to support a long-term extension of this project. Certain key elements of the Cianjur project have now been widely accepted including the establishment of centres of better practice, the creation of a core of expertise able to

improve and consolidate CBSA practice. Eventually they will provide a core of trainers from which a national training programme can develop, and assist the Ministry of Research and Development with the development of CBSA curriculum policy. Training at various levels is supported by the need for materials production, which has now been identified as a key priority. The focus is on materials for planners, trainers and organisers of support systems, as well as materials for teachers and textbook writers including guides for teachers, examples and prototypes of teaching/learning materials and guides for textbook writers.

Most importantly, the ODA expects to be able to influence policy discussions in key areas impinging upon CBSA, in particular curriculum development, teacher education, and examinations and assessment (ODA 1990).

6.6.3 The School Improvement Project (SIP) in Sind, Pakistan

The Aga Khan Education Services in Pakistan took over a cluster of four mixed schools with primary and secondary divisions which had buildings in a serious state of deterioration and no teachers. When an initial round of in-service training for the newly recruited teachers proved disappointing, the School Improvement Project was launched. This attempted to fuse the process of curriculum development, in-service training, the training of school administrators and volunteer managers, and the upgrading of equipment and physical facilities (Greenland 1990). The project identifies three key elements that have contributed to its success: an enabling leadership, an organisational structure that encourages innovation at the school level, and a significant investment in the professional development of the teachers, which have reinforced each other to bring about changes in classroom teaching.

The project claims an improved performance by the students, more positive and professional attitudes amongst the teachers, more child-centred and activity-based learning including a greater use of materials, and a greater degree of student participation.

6.6.4 Badulla Integrated Rural Development Programme

This Sri Lankan project for effecting change in plantation schools has been described as a district based programme of educational support for economically and socially disadvantaged children. Jointly sponsored by Sri Lanka's University of Education, the Ministry of Planning Implementation and SIDA, it has initiated activity in other sectors including agriculture, irrigation, roads and health. Within the educational sector, seven activities have been identified relating to:

- quality improvement in formal education,
- quality improvement in non-formal education,
- buildings and infrastructure,
- furniture and equipment,
- teacher supply,

- monitoring and evaluation, and
- management and development.

Within the formal education sector efforts have been directed largely in five areas:

- production of existing curricula materials,
- design, production and distribution of new materials,
- training and orientation,
- support mechanisms for quality development, and
- training for secondary teachers in science, mathematics and agriculture.

The innovatory features of this programme are the professional development of teachers, classroom and school supervision, increased community and school links, and attention to improved pedagogy for multi-grade teaching needed in this situation. Success which has been noted on a number of fronts, including academic performance, enrolments, attendance and staff to student ratios which derive from a 'complex array and interplay of human and material resources' (Little and Sivasithambram, 1989: 30).

6.6.5 Botswana Primary Education Improvement Project

Concerned with the low levels of academic performance of students, the Botswana government determined to increase the access, efficiency and relevance of primary education. The government decided to concentrate upon qualitative improvements in teacher training where the multiplier effect was likely to have the greatest potential. It was argued that the major concerns over the provision of individualised instruction to pupils with special learning needs, a better language mastery and an improved performance in externally set examinations, were closely related to the quality of the primary teaching force. A target was set to provide a qualified teacher in every classroom. A first step was to create a pool of teacher-training tutors. With these outcomes achieved new goals were established for 1986-91. These included:

- a graduate programme with specialisation in primary education at the University of Botswana;
- improving the curricula, instruction and assessment at the teacher training colleges;
- upgrading the majority of the members of the Department of Primary Education at the University of Botswana to PhD; and
- localising and increasing the in-servicing of practicing teachers through regional education centres.

The key features of the project may be summarised as improving the quality of teachers through better teacher training and better teacher educators, enhancing the status of primary education, and through research and studies on

primary education based in the university (Evans et al, nd; Botswana, Government of, and USAID, nd).

6.6.6 Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE) in Zambia

The Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE) in Zambia was launched in 1987 with the overall objective to provide vital inputs to facilitate the implementation of national educational reforms. It is mainly funded by SIDA and NORAD and indirectly by FINNIDA and other agencies. The plan focuses on basic education (Grades 1-9) but since in-service is an important feature of the programme it also focuses on Teacher Training Colleges.

The programme aims to achieve teacher participation in the integration of theory and practice, the school and community, and the utilization of production for both material and pedagogical benefits. This is being done through the development of resource centres, school based teachers' centres, and productive activities mainly in agriculture, industrial arts and home economics.

More specifically the aims and overall objectives of SHAPE are stated as follows:

- to enable teachers to exercise individual and collective responsibility for their professional development; and
- to enable teachers to develop a variety of productive activities in the school in order to broaden the educational experience of pupils, and bring benefits to schools through self-reliance.

In order to achieve the objectives a Secretariat was formed which has developed an organisational structure consisting of committees at the national, regional, district, zone and school levels. SHAPE activities include a systematic and sustainable staff-development programme including INSET which aims at raising professional skills, including planning, organising and managing. The INSET programme is geared towards updating the content, knowledge and skills of teaching. The Secretariat develops and distributes guidelines and handbooks for developing resources and productive work. Resource work aims at the production of teaching/learning materials by the teachers themselves using local materials. Productive activities help to bring in cash to improve school premises, and to buy tools and equipment as well as books. SHAPE has also encouraged research activities ranging from classroom based research to research by the university (Lubasi et al, 1989).

7.0 SOME LESSONS LEARNED: STRATEGIES FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION IMPROVEMENT

Donor agencies have accumulated considerable experience both from the research they have carried out and their practical

experiences in the implementation of aid projects. Some of their principal insights are summarised below.

7.1 What Makes Schools Work?

The accumulation of research findings and evaluations of development projects have brought together a wealth of knowledge about the essentials for quality schooling (Box 11). The characteristics of good teaching and learning conditions, processes and outcomes have been detailed, along with the interventions that may most effectively enhance these. Key elements that have been identified include curriculum reform, instructional materials, training for teachers, planning and organising schools and school management. A great deal of knowledge has been generated about good practices in each aspect of education. For instance, in the case of instructional materials the focus is on cost-effective, locally produced, relevant and readily available materials, and in teacher training on innovative ways of improving teacher supply, quality and motivation using varying combinations of pre-service, in-service and distance education. The need for teacher support has emerged as one of the vital areas for development. Experience suggests that material and professional support for teachers is likely to make a positive impact on the effectiveness of their classroom practices as well as contribute to the raising of their morale and motivation.

Above all, it is amply evident that change is a complex and multi-faceted process. It can only be brought about by concerted and sustained efforts on a number of fronts over time.

7.2 Collaboration among Governments and Donors

Comprehensive reform should include rethinking the organisation, purpose and length of schooling. It needs to take into account outside school variables that impact on the teachability of pupils, their nutrition and health, as well as parental attitudes. It is unlikely to be achieved merely by manipulating a few qualitative variables or by small individual donor efforts (Caillods, 1989). Aid agencies have recognised the need to work with ministries of education to support broad reforms of basic educational systems. Most of the successful donor programmes, such as USAID in Nepal, ODA in Andhra Pradesh and Indonesia, and SIDA in Zambia, have collaborated with national governments aligning their assistance to the aims and objectives of national reform movements. USAID has reported that innovative teaching methods and curricula, especially in remote areas have been successful where they were accompanied by careful feasibility studies and serious collaborative planning with recipient communities.

BOX 11 STATE OF THINKING ON QUALITY EDUCATION

The following statements encapsulate the state of thinking on quality in education:

- Trained teachers make a difference
- Class size is not relevant
- The provision of instructional materials is one of the most cost-effective ways of raising the quality of education
- Education is most effective if initial instruction uses the mother tongue
- Lavish buildings and equipment will not raise quality
- Curriculum reform will not necessarily raise educational quality
- Examinations are a useful way of monitoring school quality
- Healthy well-fed children learn better
- Amount of learning time affects educational outcomes
- Quality depends on good decentralised education management

Source: Throsby and Gannicott (1990)

The most striking weakness of international assistance remains the limited scope of the programmes and projects. Far too often aid projects cater to the needs of a small group of people or sector as in the case of the School Improvement Project in Pakistan funded by the Aga Khan Foundation. Some are short term, almost experimental in nature; once the project life is over there may be no further continuity or sustained support for the innovations, as in the case of the Radio Language Arts Programme in Kenya. Some of the poorest countries like Bangladesh have received an array of aid packages, all well intentioned and representing the latest aid flavour. Many different projects jostle side by side until replaced by newer projects. Many projects such as IMPACT in the Philippines and INSPIRE in Malaysia have proved to be effective but their long term effect and the possibility of being taken on board as part of the national plan for improved education remains in doubt. Projects are most likely to be sustained if they are integrated as soon as possible into the educational reform programme at national level.

7.3 Country Specific Solutions

The experiences of international agencies suggests that educational reforms should go hand in hand with resource mobilisation. Reforms that take account of both cost-effectiveness and quality improvement involve a long and challenging process which cannot be isolated from social, cultural and economic contexts. While problems often seem similar, country specific solutions usually have to be sought. Donors can participate in change but they cannot compensate for a lack of local political will, problems of internal resource management or structural changes which are necessary within the education system. Change can only be brought about in partnership with local national governments, and it is dependent upon their willingness to make the necessary adjustments, and by giving careful consideration to their policies and institutional, cultural and socio-economic contexts. Plans need to take account of how to work within the limitations of reduced budgets, to upgrade deteriorating teaching standards, to find new approaches to financing teacher's salaries and, most urgently, to find ways of providing basic teaching materials. Teacher training efforts have been most successful when they have been supported by job and career advancement opportunities.

7.4 Aid for Sustainable Development

While donor agencies carry on assisting with advice and the funding of projects to improve the really critical elements of basic education, they have realised that they cannot continue simply providing aid which does not result in some sustained improvement. In the literature of all agencies there is emerging awareness that the donor agencies must review their own positions and roles in developing countries.

A philosophy propagated by IDRC reflects the common thinking, that if you give a man a fish, he eats for one day, but if you teach him to fish he eats for life. Donor agency support is thus needed increasingly for long-term capacity and institution building. Thus, it is extremely important that aid acts as a promotor and catalyst for the development of local teaching materials and teacher training modes that can be sustained. Aid is needed in some heavy cost items, and in those critical areas which are likely to have the greatest multiplier effects. It is clear that aid should come with strategies for the transfer of skills and competences which will sustain changes even when the aid support is removed. Therefore aid agencies have to consider the development of greater indigenous analytic and planning capacities through greater participation of local personnel and provision of resources, while limiting the involvement of experts from developed countries.

Thus, there is a growing awareness that aid agencies need to work their research agendas with greater consideration of the conditions of developing countries and any assistance should in the long term reduce their dependence on foreign aid, helping to develop their own capacities and institutions towards self-sustained development.

7.5 Where Aid is Effective

The experience of the last two decades has revealed that project based capital expenditure is not suitable for a large primary education sector. Provision of aid in the form of primary school teachers would only bring small and localised benefits and could not be justified as a general policy. Large capital aid to the construction of buildings has often led to the over-design of buildings which cannot be maintained or utilised effectively. Rather, over the years, agencies have come to the consensus that money is best used on resources that can assist teachers improve the quality of their instruction and consequently perform their jobs better. Experience has generally shown that better results are achieved through support for recurrent costs and through technical assistance. Support has been most fruitful when allocated to items that reduce the out of pocket costs of parents, such as the preparation and distribution of teaching materials, and supply of exercise books, pencils and textbooks. FINNIDA has found that textbook preparation has been most efficient when done in conjunction with local curriculum development centres. Support for the recurrent costs of teachers' salaries has sometimes been carried out when linked to a particular reform. In some instances when the normal formal schooling is not appropriate as in the case of nomadic tribes and very isolated groups, an alternative school of the air has been successful. Agencies have also targetted disadvantaged social groups and geographical areas by upgrading their teachers. Agencies are also well placed to have an advisory input into educational development policy (Colclough et al, 1985).

7.6 Co-ordinating Aid

There seems to be a considerable need for developing countries to co-ordinate the aid they receive in order to rationalise national priorities. Donor agencies may have to extend the degree of collaboration they are presently showing in order to make an impact on the massive problems of basic education. Clearly, they cannot make an impact on all fronts, especially as each donor agency works in prescribed areas where they have built up expertise. Already a number of examples exist of donors collaborating on some of the larger projects. The World Bank assists other donors to carry forward their work in such areas as book production and distribution, and the ODA collaborates with the Aga Khan Foundation in the Sind School Improvement Project. The efforts of donors to Africa are being co-ordinated by the World Bank. It seems necessary that such collaborative efforts should be further strengthened.

In order to harness these efforts country-led initiatives are called for so that assistance may be aligned with country agendas and decisions and not vice-versa. Developing countries should assess their needs and draw up their priorities for assistance in areas where their own expertise or resources are inadequate. As a first step, most developing countries may need development officers capable of needs assessment and able to liaise with donor agencies.

Countries should really be negotiating with consortia of donors invited to assist with their specific problems. In order to negotiate to their advantage, developing countries need to put together well trained teams of educational planners who know their own national needs and have an understanding of donor mechanisms. Together they should be able to prepare a package of interventions which the national governments are committed to carry forward. It is important that recipient countries should feel a sense of ownership of ideas and projects.

8.0 INTERNATIONAL OUTCOMES

International donor activity has, once again, drawn the attention of the international community to the problems of basic education in developing countries. As a result a number of international initiatives have emerged which will turn their focus to ways and means of raising quality and enrolment rates. The UNESCO Plan of Action for the Eradication of Illiteracy by the year 2000, led to the declaration of 1990 as the International Year of Literacy. The World Bank has undertaken a comprehensive review of its policies for Primary Education and enunciated clear priorities and options for improving primary education, which are likely to influence planning and funding world-wide. USAID has launched a major programme for Advancing Basic Education and Literacy. At the same time, the International Institute for Educational Planning IIEP, has started the Inter-Regional Research Project on the Improvement of Basic Education Services.

Most important of all, the WCEFA meeting in Thailand has successfully brought into sharp focus many of the major issues relevant to basic education. The meeting brought to a common platform donor agencies and national governments of developing countries who discussed the problems and the best solutions to make basic education a reality for all. All aspects of basic education, including the numbers affected, expansion, finance and inputs for improving quality, were discussed. Such an initiative needs to be seized upon by all countries to address the shortcomings in basic education, to ensure that all individuals receive at least basic education of quality.

9.0 A CAUTIONARY NOTE

Measures introduced by national governments and donor agencies in their efforts to improve the quality of basic education in developing countries often stem from evidence produced by research activities of groups of scholars and researchers in tertiary institutions and donor agencies around the world. Donor agencies through their publications, workshops and international networks have played a particularly vital role in disseminating the findings of research pertaining to the essential inputs crucial to raising quality in basic education. Assisted by their vast financial and human resources devoted to this enterprise, many of the findings have been synthesised into more easily understood statements for a wide range of policy makers and

implementers. Through such crisp and appealing titles as 'The Dividends of Learning' and 'What Investments Boost Learning' the lessons learned in such specific areas as teacher education and the use of instructional technology purport to summarise what works and what does not work in these areas. These help greatly to spread research findings which quickly pass into an accepted 'gospel' for effective educational reform.

Undoubtedly a great deal of the present knowledge about educational inputs for enhanced quality rests upon sound research and field experience. However, the generalisations are often based on a limited number of case studies, many of which are not nationally representative. There seem to be very good grounds for further international investigations which extend the base of evidence. International donor agencies need to be better informed on the basis of sound evidence in recommending and funding policy options. In particular there is a need for individual countries who use international evidence as a basis for policy decisions, to scrutinise it carefully and to ascertain the applicability and relevance of the findings and recommendations to the specific conditions prevailing within their countries. Ideally, all countries should strengthen their local research capacities and machinery to test reform ideas within their national contexts. Donor agencies should realise that when countries do not take up their recommendations or only partly accept them, they often have very good reasons for doing so. In the final analysis, it should be the individual countries that make the decisions about what changes ought to be made and how they ought to be implemented.

REFERENCES

- Anderson M B (1988) 'Improving Access to Schooling in the Third World: An Overview', **BRIDGES Research Report Series**, No 1
- Andhra Pradesh, Government of (1987) **Andhra Pradesh Primary Schools Project with UK Assistance Overseas Development Administration: A Brief note**, Hyderabad
- Australian International Development Assistance Bureau (1988) **Co-operation: A Review of the Australian International Aid Program 1987-88**, Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service
- Australian International Development Assistance Bureau (1989) **Australian Overseas Aid Projects 1987-89**, Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service
- Avalos B and Haddad W (1981) **A Review of Teacher Effectiveness Research in Africa, India, Latin America, Middle East, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand: Synthesis of Results**, Ottawa: IDRC
- Berstecher D and Carr-Hill R (1990) **Primary Education and Economic Recession in the Developing World since 1980**, UNESCO: A Special Study for the World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand
- Botswana, Government of and USAID (nd) **Botswana Primary Education Improvement Project, Phase II: 1986-1991**
- BRIDGES (Basic Research and Implementation in Developing Education Systems) (1988) **Annual Summary Fiscal Year 1988**
- Bude U (1988) **The Primary School's Role in Development: Services for the Improvement of Local Living Conditions - Facts and Fallacies from Cameroon**, Bonn: DSE/ZED
- Caillods F (Ed) (1989) **The Prospects of Educational Planning**, Paris: UNESCO/IIEP
- Canadian International Development Assistance (CIDA) (1987), **Sharing our Future**, Quebec: CIDA
- Carr-Hill, R (1984) **Primary Education in Tanzania: A Review of the Research**, Education Division Documents No 16, Stockholm: SIDA,
- Centre for the Study of Education in Developing Countries (CESO) (1990) **Programming Research in Education in Developing Countries in the Netherlands**, Paper prepared for the 'Show and Tell' Session during the meeting of the IWGE at IIEP, Paris from 30 May to 1 June 1990
- Centre for the Study of Education in Developing Countries (CESO) (1990) **CESO Medium-Term Plan**, The Hague: CESO

Chinapah V, Lofstedt J I and Weiler H (1989) 'Integrated Development of Human Resources and Educational Planning', *Prospects*, 19(1)

Colclough C, Lewin K and Oxenham J (1985) 'Donor Agency Support for Primary Education; Strategies Reconsidered', *International Journal of Educational Development*, 5(4)

Colclough C and Lewin K (1990) *Educating all the Children: The Economic Challenge for the 1990s*, Paper presented to the World Conference on Education for All, JOMTIEN, Thailand

Cornia A, Jolly R and Stewart F (1987) *Adjustment with a Human Face: Protecting the Vulnerable and Promoting Growth*, Vol 1, Oxford: Clarendon Press

Cummings W K (1986), *Low-Cost Primary Education: Implementing an Innovation in Six Nations*, Report 252e, Ottawa: IRDC

Department of Education, University of Dar es Salaam (1987), *Primary School Textbooks in Tanzania: An Evaluation of their Quality*, Education Division Documents No 37, Stockholm: SIDA

Denning C (1990) 'But would the books be good enough anyway...?', Paper presented at the Multicultural Education and Development Seminar, University of London Institute of Education, 30 January 1990

DSE (German Foundation for International Development) (1989) *Formal Basic Education*, Bonn: Education, Science and Documentation Centre

DSE (1989) *German Foundation for International Development: Dialogue and Training*

Evans M, Haseley L and Leep A (nd) *Botswana Primary Education Improvement Project 1981-86: Final Report*, USAID and the Government of Botswana

Fuller B (1985) *Raising School Quality in Developing Countries: What Investments Boost Learning?* Education and Training Series, Discussion Paper, Report No EDT 7, Washington DC: The World Bank,

Fredriksen B (1990) *Increased Foreign Aid for Primary Education: The Challenge for Donors*, Paris: IWGE/IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

Glass G V and Smith M L (1978) *Meta-Analysis of Research on the Relationship of Class Size and Achievement*, San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development

Grant P (1987) *The State of The World's Children 1987*, New York: UNICEF

Greenland J (1990) *School Improvement: Findings from Three Aga Khan Foundation Projects*, Paris: IWGE/IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

GTZ (1988) **Annual Report 1987**, Eschborn

GTZ (1989) **Annual Report 1988**, Eschborn

GTZ (1990) **GTZ projects and programs ongoing or in preparation, in the sectors of textbook production and teacher training and upgrading**, Paris: IWGE/IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

Gustafsson I (1990) **Structural Adjustment Programmes and Project Assistance - the Need for Modifications**, Paper prepared for International Working Group on Education, IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

Haddad W D (1985) **Teacher Training: A Review of World Bank Experience**, Washington: Education and Training Department, World Bank

Hallak J (1990) **Investing in the Future: Setting Educational Priorities in the Developing World**, Paris: IIEP-Pergamon Press

Heneveld W and Hasan P (1989) **Evaluation of Sind School Improvement Programme**, Aga Khan Education Service (Pakistan), Geneva: Aga Khan Foundation

Heyneman S P et al (1978) **Textbooks and Achievement: What We Know**, Staff Working Paper No 298, Washington DC: World Bank

Heyneman S P (1985) **Investing in Education: A Quarter Century of World Bank Experience**, Seminar Paper No 30, Washington DC: World Bank

Heyneman S P and White D S (1986) **The Quality of Education and Economic Development**, Washington D C: World Bank

Heyneman S and Loxley W (1988) 'The effect of primary school quality on academic achievement across 29 high- and low-income countries', **American Journal of Sociology** 88 (6)

Husen T, Sahat L J, and Noonan R (1978) **Teacher Training and Student Achievement in Less Developed Countries**, Staff Working Paper No 310, Washington: World Bank,

International Development Research Centre (IDRC) (1986), **Projects 1981-1985**, Ottawa: IDRC

International Development Research Centre (1988) **Annual Report 1987/1988**, Ottawa: IDRC

International Development Research Centre (1989) **Project Profiles: The quality of teaching and the training of teachers in the developing world**, Report 239e, Ottawa: IDRC

International Development Research Centre (1989) **Annual Report 1988/1989**, Ottawa: IDRC

International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)
(1989) **Inter-regional Research Project on the Improvement of
Basic Education Services**

King K and McNab C (Eds) (1990) **NORRAG NEWS 7**, March 1990

King K (nd) **The Golden Fleece? The search for low-cost
quality in primary education for all** in forthcoming book

Kuper W (1985) **Basic Education in the Work of the GTZ**
Eschborn: GTZ

Little A and Sivasithambram R (1989) 'Effecting Change in
Plantation Schools: A case for Sri Lanka'. A paper prepared
for World Bank Conference **Effective Schools for Students from
Impoverished or Economically Disadvantaged Backgrounds**,
Washington DC: World Bank

Lockheed M E and Verspoor A M (1990) **Improving Primary
Education in Developing Countries**, World Bank Draft prepared
for Limited Distribution to the Participants at the World
Conference on Education for All, Thailand

Lockheed M E et al (1986) 'How Textbooks Affect Achievement
in Developing Countries: Evidence from Thailand',
Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 8(4): 379-392

Lubasi R, Mudenda G and Odin B (1989) **An Evaluation of
Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE) in Zambia**,
Stockholm: SIDA

Maglen L R (1990) 'The Impact of Bilateral Aid on Education
Development: the Case of Australia and the South Pacific',
Comparative Education 26(1)

Ministry of Human Resource Development Department of
Education, Government of India (1987) **The Shiksha Karmi
Project, Rajasthan, India: Project Document**, New Delhi

Ministry of Overseas Development (1975) **The Changing Emphasis
in British Aid Policies: More Help for the Poorest**,
London: HMSO

Muntaz B K, Norton J and Hasan A (1989) **An Evaluation of the
Self-Help Schools Construction Programme, Pakistan**, Geneva:
The Aga Khan Foundation

Noonan R (1978) **An Empirical Study of Two Countries: Chile
and India, Teacher Training and Student Achievement in Less
Developed Countries**, Staff Working Paper No 310, Washington
DC: World Bank

New Zealand (1988) **Project Profiles 1987-88**, New Zealand
Bilateral Assistance Programme

OECD (1988) **Development Co-operation: Efforts and Policies
of the Members of the Development Assistance Committee**,
Paris: OECD

OECD (1989) Development Co-operation in the 1990s: Efforts and Policies of the Members of the Development Assistance Committee, Paris: OECD

Orivel F and Sergent F (1988) 'Foreign Aid to Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: How Useful Is It?' Prospects 18(4)

Orivel F and Sergent F (1990) External Aid to Primary, Technical and Vocational Education Throughout The World: Period 1981-1986, Paris: IWGE/IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

Overseas Development Administration (ODA) (1982) British Aid to Education in Developing Countries, Overseas Development Paper No 22, London: HMSO

Overseas Development Administration (1989) British Overseas Aid Anniversary Review 1989, London: ODA

Overseas Development Administration (1990) Two Primary Education Projects in Andhra Pradesh and Indonesia, Paris: IWGE/IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

Overseas Development Administration (1990) Into the Nineties: An Education Policy for British Aid, London: ODA

Romain R (1985) Lending in Primary Education: Bank Performance Review, 1962-1983, Education and Training Series, Discussion Paper, Washington, DC: World Bank,

SIDA (1988 and 1989) Education, Public Administration and Cultural Assistance, Statistical Digests 1987/88 and 1988/89

Shiksha Karmi Project, Rajasthan, India (1989) Agreed Minutes and Reports from Fourth Joint Bi-Annual Review, SIDA, Government of Rajasthan, Jaipur and Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi

Sjostrom R (1986) A Pilot Study of Effects of Primary Schooling in a Rural Community of Ethiopia: The Case of Saya Debir, Education Division Documents No 31, Stockholm: SIDA

Smith M L and Glass G V (1979) Relationship of Class-size to Classroom Processes, Teacher Satisfaction and Pupil Affect: A Meta Analysis, San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development

Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation with Developing Countries (1990) SAREC Annual Report 1988/89

Tangyong A F, Wahyudi, Gardner R and Hawes H (1989) Quality Through Support for Teachers: A Case Study from Indonesia, The Office of Educational and Cultural Research and Development, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jakarta, Republic of Indonesia and Department of International and Comparative Education, University of London Institute of Education

Throsby C D and Ganicott K (1990) 'The Quality of Education in the South Pacific', Pacific Economic Bulletin, June 1990

Throsby C D and Maglen L R **Australian Aid for Education in the Pacific, Islands/Australia Working Paper No 88/4**

UNDP(1990) **Human Development Report 1990**, New York: Oxford University Press

UNESCO (1989) **Draft Medium-Term Plan (1990-95)**, General Conference, Twenty-fifth Session, Paris: UNESCO

UNESCO (1990) **Basic Education and Literacy: World Statistical Indicators**, Paris: UNESCO, Office of Statistics

UNESCO (1990) **Trends in the External Financing of Education in Developing Countries by International and Multilateral Financing Agencies**, Paris: IWGE/IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

USAID (nd) **USAID's Partnership for Basic Education** - folder

USAID (1981a) **US Aid to Education in Nepal: A 20-Year Beginning**, Aid Project Impact Evaluation Report No 19

USAID (1981b) **Northern Nigeria Teacher Education Project**, AID Project Impact Evaluation Report No 23

USAID (1982a) **Radio Correspondence Education in Kenya**, AID Project Impact Evaluation Report No 37

USAID (1982b) **A Low-Cost Alternative for Universal Primary Education in the Philippines**, AID Project Impact Evaluation No 38

USAID (1984) **AID and Education: A Sector Report on Lessons Learned**, AID Program Evaluation Report No 12

USAID (1990a) **Basic Education Workshop: Lessons Learned**, Washington DC February 15-16, 1990

USAID(1990b) **Progress on Meeting the Basic Education Earmark for FY 1989**, Paris: IWGE/IIEP, 30 May - 1 June 1990

Verspoor A M (1986) **Textbooks as Instruments for the Improvement of the Quality of Education**, Washington DC: World Bank

Verspoor A and Leno J L (1986) **Improving Teaching: A Key to Successful Educational Change**, Washington DC: World Bank

World Bank (1988) **Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization and Expansion**, Washington DC: World Bank

World Bank (1990a) **The Dividends of Learning: World Bank Support for Learning**, Washington DC

World Bank (1990b) **Primary Education, A World Bank Policy Paper**, Washington DC: World Bank

World Conference on Education for All (1990a) **Meeting Basic Learning Needs: A New Vision for the 1990s**, Background Document, Draft B, Jomtien Thailand

World Conference on Education for All (1990b) World
Declaration on Education for all: Meeting Basic Learning
Needs

World Conference on Education for All (1990c) Framework for
Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs: Guidelines for
Implementing the World Declaration on Education for All

QUALITY IN BASIC EDUCATION

The Commonwealth Secretariat Education Programme publishes studies and practical handbooks which suggest ways for improving the quality of basic education. The series concentrates on professional development and support for teachers. Recent titles include

Background

Improving the Quality of Basic Education Through Curriculum Development and Reform (1991)

Kazim Baczus

Improving the Quality of Education: A Case Study of Curriculum Innovation in Malaysia (1991)

A A Aziz et al

Aid and Education for All (EFA) (1991)

Kenneth King

Review of Selected International Development Programmes in Basic Education (1991)

Jasbir Sarjit Singh

Initial Teacher Training

Approaches to Teacher Education: Initial Teacher Training (1991)

Beatrice Avalos

Teacher Management and Support

Headteacher Management Training and the Development of Support Materials (1991)

Bob McNie Richard White and Jim Wight

Training and Professional Support for Headship in Africa (1991)

Alex Dadey and Clive Harber

Personnel Information Records and Management Procedures in the National Education System (1989)

Ian Halliday

Decentralising the Education System (1991)

Keir Bloomer

Good Registry Practices (1991)

Ian Halliday

Publications are available from

Education Programme

Human Resource Development Group

Commonwealth Secretariat

Marlborough House, Pall Mall

London SW1Y 5HX